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JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

CLEARING HOUSE

FALL NUMBER

"RADIO IN EDUCATION"

H. H. RYAN, Chairman

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EDITORIAL

RADIO IN EDUCATION

The pedagogue who sits down to contemplate the possibilities of radio broadcasting finds his efforts aided by an advantage to which he is not accustomed. This unusual element is his own first-hand, personal acquaintance with the entire history of the industry. From its squealing infancy to its present awkward and overgrown adolescence, we have watched it thrive and develop. If professional educators have an ambition to write some of the future installments of the story, there is a genuine advantage in having seen the previous chapters worked out.

To one with a yen for tinkering, the early days of radio were full of romance. Remember the high-school principal who in 1920 shocked the subject-matter devotees among his faculty by convening the whole school, right in the middle of the day, to witness a demonstration of a new toy called the "wireless telephone"? And the first "set" that you made, the core of which was a piece of bulbous queen's ware called by you a "tube," and by our British cousins, with their characteristic obstinacy, a "valve"? Then later there was your masterpiece, of three or four or five tubes, bristling with wires, and spaghetti, and transformers, and looking like a cross between a Blue Mountain distillery and an octopus in hot pursuit.

Whereas in those days we used to receive invitations to "come over and listen to the radio," we now receive invitations to "turn that thing off at some decent hour of the night." The country is liberally besprinkled

with radio receivers, of a tone quality and faithfulness of reproduction far surpassing the rosiest dream of a decade ago. Radios are found in homes, automobiles, motor boats, trains, and airplanes, until there is practically no place at all where one may have auditory privacy. The importance of this for education lies in the fact that the radio has long since outgrown its rôle as an interesting phenomenon and has taken its place beside the stage and the screen and the daily newspaper as a means of influencing public thought and feeling. Millions of people listen to whatever the stations choose to broadcast.

Those who make use of radio broadcasting to further their own interests take advantage of a principle which is as valid in radio as it is in theatricals: the principle of "plugging." Whether you like a ditty or not, you will learn it if you hear it often enough. Any statement, no matter how little it appeals to you at first, may through constant repetition bore its way into your consciousness and eventually take on a coating of verity. No matter how much money you spend upon your children's musical education—no matter how hard you labor to create a preference for the best—constant crooning can dissipate that preference. All that is necessary is to keep the moon coming over the mountain.

The upshot of it all is that there is power in the radio broadcast to undo a great deal that the commonwealth tries to accomplish by spending millions of dollars in systematic schooling. The control of the programs is

in the hands of interests which measure the success of broadcasting in dollars and cents. Those interests cannot be justly accused of a deliberate intent to lower the level of our national culture; on the other hand, there are very few among them—a few shining exceptions—which place human betterment in the forefront of objectives. Such a situation is fertile ground for the development of an old sociological principle: when things are allowed to drift, low culture drives out high culture.

A great many people make no distinction between publicity and applause. An individual whose name appears often in the newspapers, or is heard often over the radio, soon takes on a pronounced halo. His opinions on all subjects develop a marked validity. He solemnly advises us as to our choice of this and that. A man who can hit baseballs over important fences becomes an authority on anything the program sponsor has to sell. The typical fourteen-year-old American boy, if given a choice between the throne of Al Capone and the pulpit of an obscure Methodist minister in Springfield, would not definitely turn his back on the former without at least a brief exploratory period.

There is no doubt that the radio also exerts a tremendous influence upon people's notions as to what is worth while thinking about. The writer recently spent a half hour with a group of friends admiring a small exhibit of pen-and-ink sketches. The drawings were unusual in subject and quality and held our rapt attention. As we passed out of the exhibit room into the corridor a radio announcer's voice, dripping with tears, flung an inquiry at us: "Do you realize that many women are using kinds of complexion powder that are unsuited to their peculiar styles of beauty? Think of it! Millions of women using powder which, instead of augmenting their natural charm, actually detracts from it!" The feminine

members of the party stiffened. As we passed a mirror they stole furtive glances at their own images, wondering whether this dark tragedy stalked their trail. The art exhibit seemed to have been dislodged.

One bright side of the picture is found in the fact that the American plan of financing programs, in contrast to the European, leaves the listener free from responsibility. Once the householder gets his set installed and paid for, he can hear whatever is on the air, with no expense except for maintenance and operation. The cost of the programs is left to the broadcaster. Of course the listeners do eventually pay the bills; but it is the habit of the American business man to take credit for creating all the wealth that goes through his hands and to assume a corresponding proprietary air. With our present array of taxing schemes this apparently free entertainment is a boon not to be lightly regarded. But it puts the listener in the rôle of recipient of charity and so takes from him much of the right to protest and demand. If the guest doesn't like the host's fare, his choice of action is limited to taking it or leaving it.

Of course the seasoned listener, with definite tastes of his own, develops a selective ear and comes finally to attend only what interests him. If all children, and all adults, were so conditioned, much of the menace of the radio would be thereby minimized. The trouble is that for millions of people the radio is an outstanding *source* of ideals and inclinations.

(Whatever may be the malign possibilities of the radio, we can as yet do little more than conjecture as to what its positive influence for good may some day be.) There is some systematic and energetic experimentation going on. Space will not permit listing the enterprises of this kind. Illustrations are: The National Committee on Education by Radio, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.; the Ohio School of the

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Air; and the Wisconsin School of the Air. Two valuable publications are: *Education by Radio*, a periodical issued by the above mentioned National Committee; and *Good References on Education by Radio*, a bibliography compiled by Clyde M. Coon, Specialist in Education by Radio, and Martha R. McCabe, Assistant Librarian in the United States Office of Education.

In the pages of this section of the CLEARING HOUSE, various points of view are pre-

sented. Mr. Tyler surveys the problems and possibilities of radio in education. Mr. Gordon points out possibilities for music and literature, and describes experiments in school and community teaching. Miss Borchers describes a double-action plan which produced educational profits for both broadcaster and listener. Finally, Mr. Segel sets up some principles for guidance in exploring the possibilities of radio in education.

H. H. R.

THE TEACHER AND RADIO EDUCATION

TRACY F. TYLER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Tyler is secretary and research director of the National Committee on Education by Radio. In this capacity he has probably more battle-front experience in the attempt to capitalize education by radio than any other man. His view of the problem is enlightening.*

H. H. R.

SCHOOLMEN throughout the country are beginning to be intensely interested in the use of radio for education. Classes in many summer schools this year have devoted to this subject units in courses for superintendents and principals. In the University of Nebraska, for example, a group of graduate students drew up plans for a series of broadcasts to be given under the auspices of the State Teachers Association during the coming year. This class was conducted by Dean F. E. Henzlik of Teachers College, University of Nebraska, and contained a number of prominent school superintendents in that State.

Unfortunately the University of Nebraska abandoned its radio station in the early years of broadcasting; so the association will have to make use of the facilities of the only educational station in the State, WCJ, owned by Nebraska Wesleyan University and, in addition, those of any commercial stations on which desirable time can be secured.

This is one illustration of the way educators are seeking to make as effective a use

as possible of this new tool. They looked at moving pictures in the same way in the early days of that industry. Like radio, the "movies" had a tremendous potential value for education. All films might have been planned with the sole object in view of raising standards and providing clean entertainment. However, the ability of the cheap, suggestive, sensational picture to draw crowds and swell the coffers of the theater owners and the producers so dominated the production of motion pictures that the educators were soon alienated from using the commercial theaters to any extent as educational aids. Only recently have educators taken up the use of films in any large degree. Such films as are now used have been prepared under the direction of leading educators and shown in educational institutions—not in commercial theaters. If the schoolman had to depend on the local theater to furnish facilities for showing his educational films, it is probable that the school and the film would still be strangers. If the number of projection machines was limited by technical considerations as is the number of broad-

casting stations, it would not be hard to visualize the few, if any, that would be found in our schools.

These technical limitations and the desire for profit have spurred the commercial broadcasting interests in the United States to urge an increase in the number of frequencies available for radio-broadcasting use. Because of this insistence the International Radio-Telegraph Conference, which opened in Madrid, Spain, September 3, had this important question before it. At present broadcast frequencies available for use in North America number ninety-six, beginning with 550 kilocycles and ending at 1500 kilocycles. This number is based on their being spaced 10 kilocycles apart, according to present technical standards. Recently a 5-kilowatt Canadian station, CKOK, located near Detroit, has been allowed to use the 540 kilocycle frequency, heretofore reserved for shipping, and hence adding a new frequency to the North American broadcast band. This came about through a joint agreement between the United States and Canada.

The United States claims exclusive use of 79 of these so-called channels, shares eleven with Canada, and relinquishes six for the exclusive use of the latter country, through a so-called "gentleman's agreement" made some time ago between these two nations. Since this agreement made no provision in the broadcast band for our neighbor on the south, Mexico has been permitting the operation of some of her stations on frequencies which cause serious interference with certain stations in the United States. With over six hundred stations licensed to operate on this limited number of frequencies and a possibility that recognition of Canadian and Mexican demands by the Madrid Conference will further reduce this number, the United States faces a crisis in radio broadcasting. Six hundred stations cannot operate very effectively on such a limited number

of frequencies. The factor that makes operation at all possible is that large numbers of these stations are of low power, designed only to serve a small area around one city. Radio engineers do not believe stations in the United States of 5 kilowatts or more in power can operate simultaneously at night on the same frequency without seriously reducing each other's effectiveness. It is difficult to place more than three one-kilowatt stations on the same frequency at night without reducing their effective service area. The majority of these six hundred stations are placed on what are known as local frequencies. On some of them as many as fifty stations may be licensed to operate with power not to exceed 100 watts at night. While they are generally effective in the town or city in which they are located, they do not as a usual rule reach any very great area. Unless a number of them were connected together by telephone lines, these local stations under present circumstances would be of no use whatever in serving one of our great States.

Educational radio stations of the United States occupy approximately six per cent of the available radio facilities, according to records of the Federal Radio Commission. Commercial interests are clamoring to have even this small segment taken from public use and turned over to commerce. Many leading educators are urging the adoption of the Fess Bill, S.4, which would reserve a minimum of fifteen per cent of the available radio frequencies for educational institutions. One spokesman for the "commercial crowd" has suggested that the fifteen per cent should in all justice be made fifty per cent. However, the battle goes on. It is really a case of the interests of the people on the one side versus private profit on the other.

The people of the United States have long held that education should be administered on a State and local basis. In consequence, educators feel that each State should have

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public radio facilities adequate to reach its constituents with educational, cultural, and entertainment programs, under proper auspices, and designed to raise standards. When these needs are taken care of, the remainder of the broadcast frequencies might be made available for commercial purposes. This principle of reservation has many precedents in the past history of this country and is backed by strong civic and educational groups.

There is considerable argument to support a radio system in the United States, entirely free from advertising. Great Britain has had such a system for a long time, as have many other European countries. The Canadian House of Commons has adopted a plan for a national system. Support for advertising-free radio systems usually comes from a tax on receiving sets. In England this tax amounts to ten shillings a year. The large area of our country would probably necessitate a somewhat larger tax, if a similar plan were adopted here, but the people would pay directly under such a system instead of indirectly as they do now. It is generally conceded that the estimates of the commercial radio advocates as to the cost of a national system in the United States have been placed too high, for the purpose of discrediting the plan in the eyes of the public.

At present the public stations in the United States are mainly located at the land-grant colleges and State universities and derive their support from public funds. Their efforts to provide their constituents with advertising-free programs, containing large elements of educational and cultural material, explain why, even in these times of restricted budgets, considerable amounts have been used in bringing their transmitting equipment up to the highest technical standards. In Wisconsin, the University station has moved to a better location and increased its power. New equipment has been

installed at Ohio State. At Oregon Agricultural College, an adequate budget has been set aside to continue the fine work being done by radio. Many other similar illustrations could be given.

The people must be awakened to the educational value of the radio in order that they may be willing to finance it adequately. They have always been ready to pay for a thing, once they were convinced of its value. They spoke in Oregon when they were given the opportunity. They will do so in other States when given the chance. The most hopeful element in the present so-called "American system" of radio is the college station.

The program is, after all, the heart of the whole problem. Where, except in our educational institutions, can such great talent be found in every line of human endeavor? Individuals can be brought to the microphone who can speak authoritatively on almost any topic. The listener knows that he will not be exploited. He is given an opportunity to forge ahead that might be closed to him were it not for the radio. The program must be made to fit his needs and constantly checked at the receiving end for most effective functioning. In arranging broadcasts for school use, a close contact must be maintained with the classroom teacher and, in turn, she must keep constant watch over pupil reactions. No matter how carefully the program is arranged, unless it fits the needs of the listener it will not have an audience. Constant experimentation in program construction is needed. Every classroom teacher is a potential radio teacher. She should be interested in radio. She should be critical of programs planned for school use. She should send in suggestions to the college or university stations covering present programs or probable future ones. If she is located where proper equipment is available, she should cooperate in the formation of committees to plan radio lessons and programs. She should be willing to do her part

in writing or delivering various units for radio use. These radio lessons must grow out of experience in the classroom. It is only through continual coöperation between educational radio-station authorities on the one hand and the schools, State educational associations, colleges, and universities on the other, that radio education will be brought to a state of maximum effectiveness.

Many of our newer schools are being equipped with centralized radio equipment. This has been done to make possible sending into one or more classrooms programs originating in the school, as well as to bring in programs broadcast by outside radio stations. By the former method, a teacher who has prepared a unit for radio use can try it out on a single class and, through the coöperation of the classroom teacher, check its effectiveness and make needed revisions. At Cleveland, where so much successful

work has been done in this field, the trying out of the lessons in advance of their radio use has been the invariable rule. The experiences of such cities as this should serve as a guide in further experimentation.

In conclusion, may I urge educators everywhere to become acquainted with the radio problem. Study the problems presented by the limited number of facilities, by the securing of adequate finance, and by the preparation of programs. Use every opportunity that presents itself to acquaint the people in your community with the truth about the possibilities of radio for benefiting the public. If there are any noncommercial stations in your State, give them every assistance you can. In this way you will aid in doing for the radio what was not possible in the case of the "movies"; namely, make it of maximum aid to our State-controlled systems of education.

TEACHING MUSIC TO SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY BY RADIO

EDGAR B. GORDON

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Gordon is professor of music in the University of Wisconsin. A remarkably successful leader of group singing, he has found it possible to obtain gratifying results by radio. H. H. R.

THE value of the radio in education is a much discussed subject. It is, of course, generally agreed that as an instrument of informal educational purpose the radio is, in all probability, the most effective agency yet devised. Its value, however, as a medium for the promotion of formal classroom teaching is a much mooted question. Wild enthusiasts have almost gone to the length of prophesying the passing of the living personality of the teacher and the substitution therefor of a receiving set through which the voice of a master teacher shall come and by whom master lessons shall be taught. Although much has been accomplished in the use of the radio as an actual teaching device, the day is probably far distant when the schoolroom teacher shall be

supplanted either by the radio voice or the "televised" personality of master teachers.

The experiment of the National Broadcasting Company in conducting under the direction of Dr. Walter Damrosch lessons in the appreciation of music is the most continuous and extended example of radio teaching thus far inaugurated. The American School of the Air, sponsored by the Columbia Broadcasting Company, has numerous projects which it is promoting. The University of Chicago some two years ago began broadcasting college courses directly from the classroom, and last year Professor Percy Boynton gave a course in American literature which was unusually successful. Numerous school systems such as that of Santa Barbara, California, have utilized the

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radio as supplementary aids to the school program.

The most significant use of the radio in elementary and secondary schools has been that carried on at Cleveland, Ohio, where a special radio committee appointed by the superintendent of schools has worked hard and long in the development of a radio teaching technique that would be effective. Indeed, to the State of Ohio must go the credit of having done more pioneer work in the field of radio education than has any other part of the country. The Ohio School of the Air, conducted under the supervision of the Department of Public Instruction, is making a real contribution to knowledge in this field. Closely following the lead of Ohio comes the State-owned station at the University of Wisconsin where, under the co-operative relationship between the University, the State Department of Public Instruction, and the several commissions of the State Government, an increasingly effective program of educational broadcasting is going on.

The values of informational broadcasts and the attractiveness of programs designed to develop a larger understanding and appreciation of such subjects as music have been conclusively proved. Among the problems as yet unsolved are: (1) devising effective methods whereby the reactions of listeners and the success of teaching may be measured; (2) providing the teacher with the assurance that consecutive listening, lesson after lesson, is being indulged in—a thing which, of course, is essential if any real teaching is to be done.

Although the radio has obvious values as a teaching device, once the special teaching technique is evolved, it seems strange that relatively few teaching projects have been carried on under controlled conditions so that objective measurements of results might be made.

The station at the University of Wisconsin which, by the way, is one of the oldest

in America, was set up originally for research purposes. Although the scope of its activities has been greatly widened, it is available for experimental studies of various kinds. Two years ago a radio research committee of the University, consisting of Dr. John Guy Fowlkes of the School of Education, Dr. Henry Lee Ewbank of the department of speech, and the writer, set up an experiment in teaching, the purpose of which was to show how effective this method is as compared with that done by the actual classroom teacher.

The subjects of current events and music were chosen for the experiment. Twenty-five rural schools were chosen by the committee as a control group and an equal number of schools was chosen by the county superintendent as the experimental group. Students in both groups were provided with the same study materials; in the case of the control group these were taught by the classroom teacher, whereas in the experimental group all the teaching was done over the radio. Teachers in the radio schools were instructed not to drill the students on the information given in the lesson. The broadcasts were intended to supplement the informational material which was in the hands of the children.

The writer will not attempt to give in detail the data secured as a result of a statistical study of the two groups. Suffice it to say that the results seem to indicate that the materials contained in the radio lessons were better taught than without the aid of the radio.

The experiment in teaching music was conducted on a slightly different basis from that of the current-events broadcast. Recognizing the inability of the average rural teacher to teach music efficiently, a different method of measuring results had to be used. The Gildersleeve-Harrison music information tests were given at the beginning and at the end of the experiment to both groups. The schools in the control group did not

have uniform instruction during the course of the experiment. Some schools had little or no instruction; in others a music teacher came in occasionally.

Each music lesson was carefully prepared and rehearsed in advance, with a view to presenting it with a maximum degree of effectiveness. In addition to the presentation of informational material and music calculated to improve the appreciative capacities of the children, the greatest emphasis was upon that of developing actual skill in singing.

A repertoire of songs, both unison and two-part, were presented with radio demonstrations by a group of children as to type of tone quality desired. Again the room teachers were carefully instructed to give no aid to the children whatsoever, excepting that specifically requested by the radio teacher. Teachers were sometimes requested to put the music and the words of the song on the blackboard, or perhaps to write the name of a composer or composition. As a means of checking the practical results of this teaching, the writer, accompanied by a committee of senior music students interested in the project, actually visited most of the schools receiving the instruction. It was found that the children were singing accurately and with a light, lovely tone the songs taught in the radio lessons.

A comparative study of the results of the Gildersleeve-Harrison music information tests given at the beginning and at the end of the experiment showed critical ratios well above four; this evidence is accepted by statisticians as denoting certainty. The radio lessons in music were apparently highly successful.

Some subsequent experiments in the radio teaching of music at the University of Wisconsin station have demonstrated the ease with which both rhythmic and ear training may be carried on. Recently the writer devised a shorthand method of taking musical

dictation in which the numerals were used as a means of indicating the various tones of the key. Large groups of children were enlisted in undertaking this musical dictation by means of the radio and the hundreds of papers sent in revealed an astonishingly high degree of accuracy.

Another experiment recently carried on in Wisconsin was that of utilizing the home-recording machine as a means of revealing to the radio teacher the success of his efforts. The department of rural sociology of the College of Agriculture, in connection with its extensive program of rural life, has stimulated a large interest in group singing among the adults of the State. As a means of providing instruction and leadership for these rural groups which otherwise would not be available, the writer was asked to conduct a series of radio rehearsals, using a typical rural group in the studio for demonstration purposes. At various points in the State, other groups were assembled with music in hand and with prearranged instructions as to participation. The studio group was rehearsed, with the radio teacher addressing remarks and instructions directly to the groups listening in. In a number of instances, provision was made in advance for having home-recording machines on hand so that at the request of the radio teacher records were made of the singing of the far-distant groups. These records were sent to the instructor, who made corrections and recorded examples of good singing on the reverse side of the record, and returned it to the senders.

The most apparent obstacle in the way of developing a widespread and effective use of the radio in education is the monopoly of the air by commercial stations. Until there is some legislation to effect a reorganization of the control of the air, the people of America will be denied the educational use of this greatest of modern miracles—the radio.

THE USE OF TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN THE EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTION BY RADIO

DAVID SEGEL

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Segel is specialist in educational tests and measurements in the United States Office of Education. He is interested in the validity of the results of experimentation. He offers advice here upon methods and conditions for experiments.*

H. H. R.

NEW movements in education have usually been inaugurated without adequate evaluation through the use of tests and measurements. Up to the last few years the values of different methods of teaching have been estimated by general observation of the success of pupils and by the psychological analysis of the elements involved. Changes in school organization, such as, for instance, the introduction of the junior high school, have been brought about with little regard for measurement. It is true that programs of testing will not determine the value of some proposed changes in school practices. The experienced judgment of educators and the observance of general psychological principles must always govern much of our thinking in education. In view of recent advances in methods of testing, however, new movements in education should be subjected to a measurement program in so far as practicable.

The use of the radio in educational work is new. It arose after the great growth in measurement occurred. It will be agreed by most educators that the contribution of the radio to education lies in the field of teaching method and curriculum content. Its values in this field might conceivably tend to change school organization or to produce other far-reaching effects in school life. Its contribution, therefore, must come about first in the improvement of instruction. If this is true, the use of measurements of achievement and ability becomes one of the chief methods of the valuation of the radio in education. Changes in pupil achievement resulting from varying methods of instruction and content material can be measured. Even social attitudes can be roughly meas-

ured. There is, therefore, an opportunity to regulate the growth in the use of this new tool in education by means of scientific experimentation.

The best method of experimentation in education is that which is called the controlled experiment. A controlled experiment in education by radio, just as in education in general, is one that sets up learning situations in which all factors, except the factor to be experimented with, will be equal or neutralized. For instance, in the use of the radio in teaching current economic and political problems in senior high schools, an ideal experimental set-up would be as follows: two fairly large groups of pupils equal in age, learning ability, studiousness, attitude towards learning, initial knowledge of political science, economics and general information, and social, cultural, and economic background; for the one group (experimental group), training in current economics and political problems by way of the radio, with a certain amount of classroom aid; for the other group (control group), class instruction in current economic and political problems, using the same content as in the other. The teachers in the control group and those in the experimental group are presumed to be equated for teaching ability and enthusiasm and to have at their command, except for the radio situation, the same instructional materials and advantages. At the end of three or four months of such instruction a new-type test covering the objectives of the course should be given. If the course is intended to give the student ability to reason with material in current political science and economic problems, then the test should contain items which will make it

necessary for the student to reason with current and political science and economic material. With this experimental set-up, the raw difference in average score between the two groups could be used to indicate almost exactly the superiority of one method over the other.¹

The only factor different in the two groups of students as described above is the method of instruction. In most experiments, however, the set-up will be far from the ideal. There are two general factors which need equalizing in establishing equivalent groups. One factor is the pupils and the other is composed of the teacher and the accessory opportunities to learning afforded by the classroom situation.

In attempting to equate groups it is best to begin with general mental ability and achievement in the subject to be experimented with. For instance, if the teaching of United States history in the eighth grade were to be experimented upon, the two groups of pupils should be matched as well as possible in mental age, intelligence quotient, and knowledge of United States history. Any inadequacy in matching on account of other factors will be ordinarily taken care of when the difference in result is compared to the probable error of the difference.

From an experimental standpoint, the variation in the second factor is more serious than the variation in the other. This is because no probable error for its effect can be determined. Teachers differ considerably in ability and enthusiasm. In radio experimentation the teacher who is using the radio may, because of its novelty, wax enthusiastic and teach in a particularly superior manner during the time of the experiment. Again, the materials for instruction by radio

may be better organized and planned than the instruction material in a control group. It has been observed that the better the instructional material is organized, the higher the achievement. In radio-education experimentation, this means that, in comparing a method of instruction by radio with one without the radio, the same amount of care should be exercised in organizing the materials of instruction for each of the methods which are to be compared. The only difference here should lie in the type of organization—the one being organized for regular class work and the other for instruction with the aid of the radio.

All the factors must be taken into consideration in planning an experiment to test the efficiency of instructional procedure. A method which has some advantage in equalizing the instructional factor is that of rotating the teachers between control and experimental classes. This equalizes the element of general ability of teachers and to some extent that of enthusiasm. Even if teachers are rotated they may still be more enthusiastic with one group than the other. Equality of subject-matter organization is not taken care of by the rotation of teachers.

Since the radio is an auxiliary agency for instruction in the classroom, experimentation will often be concerned with certain details of teaching procedure rather than with the teaching process as a whole. In some cases experimentation will take the form of comparing one procedure in radio education with another procedure in radio education. For instance, much experimentation will be needed in determining the best type of supplementary materials to be used with classroom broadcasts according to subject and grade. Another problem will be the range of vocabulary best suited to radio broadcasting for a given grade.

Another method, closely related to the experimental method utilizing both control and experimental groups, is that of using only

¹ This is because the probable error of the difference $\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2r_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2}$ would be nearly zero because σ_1 would be equal or nearly equal to σ_2 and r_{12} would be equal or nearly equal to 1.

RADIO DRAMATIZATIONS IN PARLIAMENTARY LAW

an experimental group. By this method the growth in achievement in a group being given certain instruction by radio may be noted. This method may be used when it is not a question of the efficiency of this method of instruction as compared with another already established, but a comparison of radio instruction with no instruction or with incidental instruction in the subject. In rural schools, instruction in a special subject, as for instance music, might be tested by giving music tests at intervals and noting the growth. If the tests are standardized the results may be compared to the national norms. In such comparisons the groups used in establishing the national norms are being used as a control group. The use of such a control group has of course very obvious

limitations; nevertheless this method of using tests is probably a very important one in the evaluation of radio in education.

The use of tests and measurements in radio experimentation should be a very valuable aid in determining the subjects in which the classroom teacher can be helped by means of the radio; the techniques of teaching which can be used to best advantage in connection with school radio broadcasts in a particular subject; and valid educational material in addition to that now taught. By applying the techniques of experimentation to the use of the radio in education we may avoid making extreme claims for the value of this new technique in education, and at the same time may aid in placing it in a sound position in the educational scheme.

RADIO DRAMATIZATIONS IN PARLIAMENTARY LAW

GLADYS L. BORCHERS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Borchers is assistant professor of speech in the University of Wisconsin and head of the department of speech in Wisconsin High School. She adapts herself skillfully to new educational problems, partly through unusual adeptness in knowing what her pupils are thinking. She describes an experiment in adapting radio to her field.* H. H. R.

WHEN WHA, the radio station of the University of Wisconsin, organized its School of the Air in 1931, the sophomore speech class at Wisconsin High School, the University high school, was invited to present a course in parliamentary law. Lessons were to be given from 9.30 to 9.45 each Monday morning for a period of nine weeks.

Here was a practical speech project, modern, interesting, challenging! While radio speaking is given some consideration in most courses in general speech training in high school, not many of the pupils of such a class actually broadcast. But in nine carefully planned lessons we saw the opportunity to have every able member of the class participate. These lessons would not only motivate the class in a study of parliamentary law but they could be used to motivate these

boys and girls to develop clear, agreeable, and expressive voices; only by such means could they be heard and understood by their hundreds of listeners—listeners who actually sent in reports on programs, who wrote freely and specifically about effective and ineffective speakers. Pupils and teacher welcomed this chance to build from the classroom discussion of rules of parliamentary law and the principles of voice and persuasion a program to be presented before a real audience. They also welcomed the opportunity to profit by the criticism of that audience. A repetition of this process week after week for nine weeks was bound to bring results in speech training.

The problem was presented to the class. The members were made to feel that success or failure would reflect on them. They were

impressed with the quality of the other programs given over this station, the oldest educational radio station in the world. They were, of course, anxious to have the first reports from listeners favorable. All agreed at the outset that there should be no question as to the accuracy of the subject matter taught. "We must understand parliamentary procedure," they said. "No one shall say we are trying to teach to others rules which we do not understand ourselves." So it was agreed that every person in the class was to become familiar with all of the rules of parliamentary law found in the textbook, *Better Speech* by Woolbert and Weaver. This was the minimum requirement. The more able students were advised to add to this by consulting Robert's *Rules of Order*, or any other authority on the subject.

The division of this material into nine units which could be understood separately or profitably linked together was the next problem. "How much can the audience get in one lesson?" they asked. They saw at once that the only answer to this could come from a knowledge of the audience.

A conference with Mr. H. B. McCarty, director of WHA, revealed that the largest number of listeners would be ten to sixteen years of age, and it was for them that the course was intended. These boys and girls were scattered throughout Wisconsin and the neighboring States; the Madison schools listening at this hour seemed to be typical of the entire audience. Representatives were then chosen to visit these local schools, in order to find out how each school could make use of the material we were planning to teach. It was discovered that school clubs had been or were to be organized in most of the buildings. Every boy and girl was urged to become a member of at least one group.

After a class discussion, we decided that a series of dramatizations would be the most interesting and effective method of teach-

ing, and that, instead of using imaginary clubs and characters, we would use the names of clubs and pupils of the listening schools. Each person in the class worked on a dramatization for every program. The one used over the radio was in some cases the best dramatization offered, and in other cases a combination of the best suggestions of all of the students. Two excerpts from broadcasts are included in this article. Lesson No. 1 is the work of the entire class. Lesson No. 3 is the work of two girls.

In the first lesson the pupils were instructed to teach the following:

1. The need for training in parliamentary procedure
2. How to organize a group
3. How to participate as a member
4. How to serve as president, secretary, committee member
5. The basic principles of orderliness, fairness, and efficiency
6. Calling the first meeting to order
7. Nominating and electing officers, using two methods of voting
8. Appointing committees
9. Obtaining the floor
10. Making, putting, and discussing a motion
11. How to correct an error in parliamentary procedure

RADIO LESSON NO. I.

Parliamentary Law

Speech 3—Wisconsin High School

FIRST SCENE

WILLIAM MILLER. Dad, we want to start a club down at the Washington School.

MR. MILLER. Well, William, what kind of a club do you want to start?

WILLIAM. We need a club to look after the interests of the school. We have had so many broken windows, and so much disturbing noise, that we have decided to organize and get rid of these things.

MR. MILLER. Who is interested in this club?

WILLIAM. Oh; a lot of the fellows are. We aren't having any girls. What I want to know, Dad, is how to go about getting it started. I don't know exactly what to do.

MR. MILLER. In the first place, you ought to understand parliamentary law.

RADIO DRAMATIZATIONS IN PARLIAMENTARY LAW

WILLIAM. Whew! Say that word again!

MR. MILLER. Parliamentary law.

WILLIAM. What is parliamentary law?

MR. MILLER. Well, you know every country has laws that govern it, and you understand that if you are a good citizen of that country you must understand those laws. You see, the same thing is true of conducting a meeting. You can't keep law and order in a meeting of a club if you don't know the law that governs clubs, and that law is called parliamentary law. The name parliamentary law comes from parliament. It was first used in the English parliament, and has since been accepted as the correct form for conducting meetings all over the world.

WILLIAM. Tell me some of the first things to consider when parliamentary law is used in a meeting.

FATHER. A president or chairman has charge of the meeting. His first duty is to keep order, to see that one person talks at a time.

WILLIAM. I know you can't get much done if everybody talks at once.

FATHER. The second thing the president has to keep in mind is fairness. Every member of a club must have equal opportunity to speak.

SON. That's fine. Then John Perkins can't talk when I want to talk, no matter how quick he is.

FATHER. That depends on which one of you had been doing the most talking. In a given discussion the president does not call on a member a second time until all wishing to speak have had an opportunity. So if you have been talking more than John, a good president would give John a chance, and if John had been talking more than you he would give you a chance, but if both of you had been talking more than the other members of the club, he would give some one else a chance.

SON. I like that idea and I'm going to tell the fellows about it. We'll use parliamentary law, and every one of us will have a chance to talk.

MR. MILLER. You can easily see how this makes for efficiency. Much more can be accomplished in the same length of time. It is also important that only one question be considered at a time.

WILLIAM. If the president decides exactly who is to speak and what business is to be considered, it seems to me he has too much power.

MR. MILLER. In one way the president has a great deal of power, but in another way he has very little. It is true that he controls the order of the organization, but when he becomes chairman he gives up his power to vote, save in the case of a tie, and gives his opinion on a motion open

for discussion only when at his request a member of the club takes his place as presiding officer and he takes that person's place as a member of the organization.

WILLIAM. Do you suppose I could really learn all the rules?

MR. MILLER. They are really quite simple and reasonable. In fact, if you used your best judgment you could in most cases figure them out.

WILLIAM. I wish I could start at the very beginning and learn a few rules at a time.

MR. MILLER. What you should do is to study some simple rules about starting a meeting. From that you could learn how to elect officers and get the whole organization under way. Here is a book that may help you. [*Gives him Robert's Rules of Order.*]

WILLIAM. I'm going to learn the laws for our first meeting.

SECOND SCENE

A week later—Mr. and Mrs. Miller are sitting before the radio. It is 3.30 in the afternoon.

MR. MILLER. It is time for William's club to start a meeting at the Washington School.

MRS. MILLER. I hope they are able to conduct the meeting as well as the boys and girls do at the Longfellow and Randall. I've talked to Tim Harrington and Emma Gerling and their clubs seem to be running very well.

MR. MILLER. Let's listen to their club. We can get them over WHA. They are organizing now. [*His voice fades, and murmurs are heard; a general confusion gives the impression of many boys and girls.*]

WILLIAM [*Tapping*]. The meeting will please come to order. Most of you know the purpose of this meeting. We are here to organize a club which will look after the interests of the Washington School. We are going to see that no more property is destroyed in the building or on the grounds about the building. I move that John Perkins act as chairman of this meeting.

MRS. MILLER. That's William.

MR. MILLER. Yes—and that's the way to start the meeting.

SECOND PERSON. I second the motion.

WILLIAM. It has been moved and seconded that John Perkins act as chairman of this meeting. Those in favor of the motion say aye.

MEMBERS. Aye, aye.

WILLIAM. Those opposed say no. [*Silence.*]

WILLIAM. The ayes have it, and John Perkins is elected chairman. He will please take the chair.

MRS. MILLER. Now is John Perkins president of the club?

MR. MILLER. No, he is only a temporary chairman, and he will preside over the meetings until the purpose is made clear and the club is well started. Then he will see that a permanent president is elected.

MRS. MILLER. John Perkins is speaking—oh, listen.

JOHN. The first business in order is the election of a secretary.

Here a secretary is elected and committees are appointed to present names and a constitution. Later the meeting adjourns to meet the next Monday.

In Lesson No. 2 the foregoing rules were reviewed in new form and new points were added. For example, in this dramatization the secretary's minutes were corrected and accepted, a constitution was amended and adopted, committee reports were accepted, and two kinds of voting added to the principles taught in Lesson No. 1. In order to have variety in procedure, this broadcast took the form of three well-conducted club meetings, the cast of characters drawn from listening boys and girls in and around Wisconsin.

For the sake of holding the interest of the audience the lessons were varied in form. For example, Lesson No. 3 was made up of two club meetings, reviewing old procedure and adding new suggestions, and at the same time showing what happens when the members of an organization do not understand the principles of parliamentary law. The following is a part of the first dramatization in Lesson No. 3.

RADIO LESSON NO. 3

Dramatizations in Parliamentary Law
by

JEAN MATTHEWS AND JEAN RYAN

A meeting of the La Follette Club of Longfellow School. Many voices and much confusion.

PRESIDENT [rapping with gavel]. The meeting will please come to order. Annabel Waldon, the meeting is about to begin. Please stop talking! The secretary will please read the minutes.

SECRETARY. The Longfellow School La Follette Club met at Katherine Abel's home at 5.35 Mon-

day, November 21. We had supper and then had the business meeting. Dorothy Madson gave a report on *Treasure Island* by Mark Twain.

SALLY SMITH. Hey, that's not right!

PRESIDENT. Always correct the minutes after the secretary has finished reading and the chairman has asked for corrections. Proceed with the minutes, please.

SECRETARY. It was agreed that this club purchase three copies of *Treasure Island* so that the members of the club could rent them. Caroline Vitole reported that she had consulted the librarian about fixing the history books and has arranged to have them done over during the Christmas vacation. Our club is going to give \$40.00 towards this work. Lois Dyer moved that we have a book party on December 16, each person present to represent some book character. Billy Connelly amended this motion by striking out December 16 and adding that we postpone the party until after Christmas. The majority voted for this motion as amended. Pearl Osborne moved that we adjourn and Margaret Olson seconded it. The class was in favor and the meeting ended at 9.00. Respectfully submitted, Leon Sweet.

SALLY SMITH. Now may I correct it?

PRESIDENT. The time to correct the minutes is after I have asked if there are any corrections. Are there any corrections?

SALLY SMITH. *Treasure Island* was written by R. L. Stevenson.

TONY ROMANO. I rise to a point of order.

PRESIDENT. State your point.

TONY ROMANO. Sally didn't address the chair.

PRESIDENT. Your point is well taken.

SALLY SMITH. Mr. Chairman.

CHAIRMAN. Sally Smith.

SALLY SMITH. *Treasure Island* was written by R. L. Stevenson.

PRESIDENT. Will the secretary make that change in the minutes? Now do the minutes stand approved as corrected? [Pause.] If there are no further corrections, we will proceed.

FIRST MEMBER. Say, what about that idea of buying Shakespeare. I think—

SECOND MEMBER. I rise to a point of order.

PRESIDENT. Please state your point.

SECOND MEMBER. Bob Buckley did not address the chair before speaking.

PRESIDENT. Your point is well taken.

FIRST MEMBER. Mr. President.

PRESIDENT. Bob Buckley.

FIRST MEMBER. I make a motion that we discuss the question of buying the volume of Shakespeare.

HOUSE SAXOPHONES OR PYRAMIDS?

THIRD MEMBER. I rise to a point of order.
 PRESIDENT. Please state your point.
 THIRD MEMBER. Bob Buckley did not state his motion correctly; it should be, I move, and not I make a motion.
 PRESIDENT. Your point is well taken.
 FIRST MEMBER. Mr. President [*disgustedly*].
 PRESIDENT. Well, Bob.
 FIRST MEMBER. I move that the chairman appoint a committee to choose one volume of Shakespeare for the library.
 PRESIDENT. Is there a second to the motion?
 FIRST MEMBER. Come on, second it, Caroline.
 PRESIDENT. Bob Buckley, you are out of order!
 FIRST MEMBER. Well, gee! Can't you ever say anything?
 PRESIDENT. Bob Buckley, you are out of order again. I suggest that you study the rules of parliamentary law.
 THIRD MEMBER. I second the motion before the house.
 PRESIDENT. It has been moved and seconded that we buy one volume of Shakespeare's works for the library. Is there any discussion? All those in favor of the motion say aye. Those opposed, no. The ayes have it and a committee will be appointed to choose one volume of Shakespeare for the library. I appoint Ida Montz, Sylvia Frank, Peter Fedeli, and Vivian McDonald on that committee. Is there any other old business? Any new business? [*Silence.*]
 FIRST MEMBER. I move we adjourn to meet again next Monday, December 14, at 9.35 a.m.
 SECOND MEMBER. I second the motion.
 PRESIDENT. The motion has been made that we adjourn to meet again next Monday, December 14, at 9.35 a.m. All in favor say aye.
 MEMBERS. Aye, aye.
 PRESIDENT. All opposed. [*Silence.*] The meeting

is adjourned to meet again next Monday, December 14, at 9.35 a.m.

In making out this project, the Wisconsin High School was fortunate enough to have access to a radio broadcasting room for practice. The speech department at the University of Wisconsin allowed these students to use the equipment which they have for teaching and testing radio speaking. In this way the participators could present the dramatizations and members of the class could listen and criticize before the actual broadcast took place. This resulted in many changes in organization, but it was especially helpful in bringing about voice improvement. Since every person in the class helped with at least one program, all members received the benefit of this training. The results were evident in the work of the class for the rest of the year.

Not only was the experiment successful from the standpoint of the speech class, but the returns on questionnaires sent out by the radio station showed that no school replying wanted the lessons discontinued, and twelve of the seventeen schools reporting asked that these or similar lessons be repeated. Next year, therefore, will see a repetition of this project, which has drawn together in one unit a study of parliamentary law, dramatization, personal interview, classroom discussion, audience persuasion, and voice training.

SAXOPHONES OR PYRAMIDS?

FRANK M. PELTON AND JOHN CARR DUFF

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Pelton of the Nutley High School and Mr. Duff of New York University read the radio diaries of a number of high-school pupils.

F. E. L.

WHEN seven o'clock comes around this evening and the Amos-and-Andy theme song ripples from loud-speakers in forty-eight States, how many high-school boys and girls will be listening? And when the lecture

on Mayan civilization is announced a little later in the evening, how many of them will be tuning in the Gold Room orchestra?

Educators everywhere are talking and writing about radio in the classroom, and

here and there experiments are being conducted to test the value of radio broadcasts as home-study material. But what do adolescents listen to on the family radio set when they are entirely free to tune in the programs which interest them most?

An experimental study conducted last spring provides information which, though far from conclusive, probably gives a fair cross section of the adolescent's preferences in the matter of broadcast programs. A group of high-school pupils from Nutley, New Jersey, were asked to keep careful records of the radio programs they listened to during the week of May 15. They were to indicate the names of the programs to which they had chosen to listen, the time spent in listening to each program, and the hour at which it was broadcast. The record constituted each pupil's radio "diary" for the seven days. One hundred twenty-five students kept and submitted records, but only fifty were found usable in tabulating the data supplied.

Fifty high-school pupils, it was indicated, had spent 22,880 minutes listening to radio programs during the week, an average of somewhat more than an hour a day for each pupil. The time was not evenly distributed, however, as the Saturday and Sunday programs received more attention than school-day programs, and programs broadcast after ten o'clock in the evening were more popular than earlier ones.

Of the fifty students reporting, twenty-four had listened once or oftener during the week to Guy Lombardo's orchestra. Eighteen had listened to Organ Reveille. Fifteen had listened to Amos and Andy, and the same number heard Myrt and Marge and Ed Wynn. Rudy Vallee, Ben Bernie, and the Goldbergs were selected by fourteen. The

Mills Brothers sang for thirteen, and eleven had listened to Lowell Thomas and the WOR Minstrels. Ten heard Ted Brewer and ten heard the Boswell Sisters. The tabulation by program item continues through over a hundred titles heard by at least one student. The thirteen named above in the order of general popularity show clearly enough that our boys and girls used the radio for entertainment, not instruction. Even Lowell Thomas, if he be considered an instructor, is not close to the top of the list.

On a purely arbitrary basis fifteen general types of programs were determined and the programs reported by students were classified according to type. Such a classification indicated that jazz music was the type of program to which the students had given the greatest amount of their radio time, approximately thirty-eight per cent of all the time they had spent in listening. Seventeen per cent of the time was spent in listening to popular entertainment programs of a varied nature. Fourteen per cent was spent in listening to sketches. Only one per cent of their time at the radio was spent in listening to lectures. They showed somewhat more interest in symphonic music, having spent six and one-half per cent of their listening time on such programs.

A similar study made of the listening habits of college students showed that the college students spend more time with symphonic music than high-school students do and are, in general, more discriminating in the types of programs they prefer. Neither group indicated even a mild preference for the educational type of broadcast. Figures for a much larger number of students and covering a longer period should yield information of much value and interest.

SURVEY OF WHAT IS BEING DONE THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY IN RADIO EDUCATION

MARGARET B. HARRISON

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Miss Harrison has had a wide background of experience as a teacher, National Broadcasting Company associate, and special investigator in radio education, Teachers College, Columbia University. She is one of the foremost authorities on radio in the school, is a frequent contributor to magazines, and is the author of several books on the use of the radio in the classroom.*

E. R. G.

THE following discussion outlines very briefly the radio programs intended for schools that were on the air during the school year 1931-1932. It does not include any non-school educational programs, nor adult-education broadcasts.

Probably the best known of the national programs for schools is the Music Appreciation Hour, conducted by Walter Damrosch on Friday mornings from 11.00 to 12.00 o'clock through both networks of the National Broadcasting Company. These programs are intended for use in schools and are divided into four series: Series A, for third and fourth grades, and Series B, for fifth and sixth grades, one week; with Series C for seventh, eighth, and ninth grades and Series D for high schools, colleges, and music clubs on the following week. These programs are not intended to supplant regular classroom instruction, but rather designed to supplement it.

The Radio Guild, also broadcast by the National Broadcasting Company through its WJZ network, consists of a series of plays selected from high-school reading lists and dramatized for radio presentation. These are produced in out-of-school hours, 4.15 to 5.15 every Friday.

The American School of the Air programs are broadcast by the Columbia Broadcasting System every day from 2.30 to 3.00 on a coast-to-coast network. On Mondays, history dramatizations are broadcast for upper grades and high schools. During the first semester of this year these broadcasts were based on American history; during the present semester they are based on ancient history.

On Tuesdays a music and geography program is broadcast for upper grades and high schools. On Wednesdays, stories from various countries in the world are dramatized for upper grades and high schools. From time to time in the Wednesday series, art and literature-appreciation talks are given.

The Thursday programs are designed for intermediate and primary grades on alternate weeks. One week a twenty-minute intermediate music program is combined with a ten-minute elementary-science program; the following week a twenty-minute music program is followed by a ten-minute dramatization of a story.

The Friday programs are devoted to vocational guidance for high schools and a ten-minute summary of current events.

In addition to these programs broadcast on a national basis, there are many local "schools of the air." The best known of these is the Ohio School of the Air, which goes on the air through station WLW, Cincinnati, Ohio, every day from 2.00 to 3.00. The subjects covered are varied and extend from primary grades through high school, usually in twenty-minute periods. The subjects include: current events; civil government; nature study; literature; "Little Journeys in Pennsylvania"; botany; history dramatizations; art appreciation; two series of geography; primary stories; singing lessons; health; and the stories of the childhood of well-known people. The Ohio School of the Air is a venture of the State Department of Education.

The North Carolina Radio School, put on by the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, is broadcast every day except Friday, from 11.30 to 12.00 through

station WPTF, Raleigh, N.C. The programs are divided into series of five weeks each, changes in the subjects presented being made with each series. The present series includes: time and topics; guidance; current English; health; science; art; literature; and special addresses.

One of the most interesting school broadcasts is the Standard School Music Appreciation Hour, sponsored by the Standard Oil Company of California and broadcast only through stations on the Pacific coast. Two series, elementary and advanced, broadcast every Thursday from 11.00 to 11.45, prepare the children in school to listen to the symphony concert broadcast out of school at night by the Standard Oil Company. No mention is made of the Standard Oil Company in the school-hour program. This venture is particularly interesting because it has been on the air for several years and is the only commercially sponsored school-program broadcast in this country.

Several cities throughout the country are experimenting with the use of radio in their local schools. You have already heard what is being done in Providence, R.I. One of the most interesting experiments with radio is being conducted in Cleveland, Ohio, through the Cleveland, Ohio, Board of Education and under the direction of R. G. Jones, superintendent of schools.

Various schools in Cleveland, equipped with centralized radio systems, are used as experimental centers for the development of school programs to fit the Cleveland curricu-

lum. A wide variety of subjects are being tried out in order to determine what best may be taught by radio. The best known of the Cleveland programs is the arithmetic series, which is now broadcast through a local station in Cleveland to all the schools with equipment. These arithmetic lessons have been developed experimentally and, like all the programs being developed in Cleveland, are built around listener participation through the use of work sheets.

The Chicago Board of Education, through station WMAQ, broadcasts regularly to its schools. The subjects included in their radio programs are: music appreciation; geography; science; mathematics; primary stories; literature; history; and art.

There are many other local programs, but lack of space prevents mentioning them here. One program that might be of interest to those in the immediate vicinity of New York City is a weekly broadcast by the New York City Board of Education. This is primarily intended to acquaint parents with what is going on in the New York schools and includes demonstration lessons in various subjects from elementary schools through high school. This series is broadcast on Wednesday nights from 6.00 to 7.00, through station WNYC.

It is hoped that this article will acquaint teachers and school administrators with what has been offered in the field of school radio education and will be suggestive of what may be expected during the coming school year.

THE EMOTIONAL APPEAL

JULIAN ARONSON

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Aronson of the Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, wants you to "shock the little lambs with your revelations." He thinks they have seen and heard worse in the movies. F. E. L.

I PLEAD for less objectivity in the classroom. I plead for large doses of prejudice in the development of any topic by the teacher—however assumed that prejudice. To presume offhand that the analytical approach, with its halo of detachment, is most susceptible to the recalcitrant brain matter of the pupil is psychologically a fallacy. Their natures are as foreign to objective reason as they are akin to *argumentum ad hominem*. Why not accept their predilections for what they are and teach with an eye to churning up their emotions? Only then may reason become imperious if they are to feel at ease with their souls.

To be specific. Take any of the pet political nostrums vouchsafed us in our craving for better government. Don't analyze, don't strive for a balanced presentation, don't array on the blackboard two reasons for and three reasons against socialism (alas! always *three* reasons against)—but attack each nostrum in the same spirit William Jennings Bryan defended free silver. If it's bolshevism, assume that you have before you a Union Square audience. Froth at the mouth with expletives aimed at a corrupt plutocracy. Expectorate figuratively at the mention of *bourgeoisie*, Wall Street, Morgan, and Mussolini. Explain Karl Marx's theory of surplus value. Cry out to all workers to heed the class struggle and to shake off their oppressive shackles. This is bolshevism you're defending. This is the panacea of the proletariat. Comrades, unite, you have nothing to lose but your chains and a world to gain!

By this time one of the more conservative members of the class will have excused herself and gone to report your heresy to the principal. Disregard it. Launch forth in praise of capitalism. Assume the rôle of

Charlie Schwab addressing a meeting of the American Legion. Point out the lowly beginnings of our captains of industry. Yell equal opportunity and the inalienable right of every schoolboy to become president. Invite them to look at Lincoln and Carnegie. Trumpet forth the benefits of Jacksonian democracy, "rugged individualism," our high standard of living, the full dinner pail, democracy in education, and education for democracy. Compare our comfortable state with the lack of central heating, decent plumbing, and good telephone service in Europe. Confound them with the tale of the miserable peasant nibbling his baked potato while the American laborer broils steak and eats ice cream. Describe European society with its undemocratic stratification. Then sing out: Hail, Columbia, the land of opportunity!

(Your principal, who arrived during your discourse on capitalism, will now have congratulated you on your sane patriotism and promised to have you address the next Arista assembly. You shake hands with him, excuse yourself, and continue on another topic. This time it is anarchism.)

Begin with the principles of the doctrine. Tell them of the noble Kropotkin and the self-sacrificing Vanzetti. Read to them some letters Bartolomeo Vanzetti wrote to his friends and some of Sacco's advice to his son before being executed. Paint the glory of the fish peddler who, like the carpenter Jesus, deliberately accepted the challenge of a corrupt society with its nasty racketeering, its exploitation of helpless women and children, its foul slums and sordid religion, and died that others may learn. Ask them if these mighty spirits in whom humanity is apotheosized are to be dismissed as bearded bomb-throwers, sick in the head and fit subjects

for deportation. Contrast their plight with the reception accorded to Jesus by the Pharisees and that of Jeremiah among the Jews. History may repeat itself but the human race is none the wiser.

In contrast with the utopian hopes of the anarchists, precipitate the discussion into machine politics with its cash and carry practices. Justify the philosophy of Richard Croker who accepts human nature for what it is, a smelly mess of selfishness, sentimentality, and cruelty, and copes with the problem without any illusions about justice or honesty. His political methods are in harmony with the acquisitive society we live in and he differs from the "respectable" rich only in that the latter dislike to pay out of their pockets for the same workaday principles from which they have previously profited. Read to them some of the confessions of Frederick Howe and Lincoln Steffens, former muckrakers who now see the "light"! Show them the usefulness of ward captains for those who wish to avoid jury duty or for those who need matzoth on Passover. Say something about a river's being incapable of rising above its source. Shock the little lambs with your revelations;

they have seen and heard worse in the movies.

What have we accomplished? We have painted one side of life, the political, in a medley of contrasting colors. We have set bolshevism against capitalism, capitalism against anarchism, and the ward heeler against Stephen S. Wise. We have not revealed our own prejudices because our purpose is not to make students think *our* way, but to make them reason out conditions to suit their own bemuddled feelings. We have attempted to arouse in their warm breasts a turbulence about life. We have shot barbs of unrest and indecision into their naturally lethargic intellects. If they possess a germ of intelligence, it will ferment like yeast and leaven forth into expression. Thought is the outcome of a dilemma. Our first duty is to instill some of the political passions within their impressionable bodies. Sooner or later their emotional discomfort will goad them to rationalize our civic conundrums into a more tolerable understanding of the political scene. In fine, we cannot expect our students to think before they have felt and the method broached is a way out of the vicious circle called pedagogy.

DEMOCRATIZING THE EXTRACURRICULAR PROGRAM

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

EDITOR'S NOTE: Professor Johnston, principal of the University High School of the University of Michigan, here justifies a humane point system as a means of distributing the opportunities for leadership in the civic-social-expressional life of the school.

P. W. L. C.

BILL was a graduating senior in a large Western high school. He was a popular student and an able one. During his graduating year he was president of the senior class, editor of the school annual, captain of the baseball team, treasurer of the student council, and colonel of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps. In the fall he was leading man in the senior play; during the

winter an operetta was given and he held one of the leading parts. In addition to these various activities he attended parties given by the leading members of the school and was active in social life generally.

With all these various responsibilities Bill had not found time to make very good marks in class work. He "got through" in everything for he had a brilliant mind, but

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there were few A's and B's on his card although he had been an "all A" student in his freshman year. He had planned originally to go to Stanford University but his scholastic record of the last two years barred him from this. He probably would go to a local college where academic requirements were not unduly stressed and promising athletes were in demand. Bill was not altogether satisfied in looking back over his record, although he was probably the most envied student in the school. He had had a part in almost everything, but he felt that somehow he had not been an outstanding success in any one thing. His energies had been too widely distributed.

In the school annual the first portion was given up to pictures of the seniors. Beside each picture was a list of the activities in which the pupil had engaged and the offices and positions of prominence he had held during his four years in high school. After Bill's name were forty-two designations, the largest number appearing for any student in the school. But Bill really isn't the subject of our consideration. We will leave him wondering whether his popularity had really been a success. In the same graduating class there were seventy-two pupils, or twenty-six per cent [it was a large class], after whose names no honors whatever appeared. The "literary editor" had racked her brain to find harmless quotations to cover up the fact that she really knew nothing about them. "Happy are they who know him." "Thoughts are but dreams till their effect be tried." "Peace is always beautiful." "Still waters run deep." "A kind and gentle heart he had." The truth of the matter is that as far as student activities are concerned this group had been left out entirely while Bill and a few other leaders monopolized the extracurricular program on which the school prided itself.

Perhaps you think this picture is an exaggeration. On the contrary, Bill is a real

high-school senior [or was four years ago], the school is an actual school, and the figures given describe the senior class of which he was a member. The situation is not confined to this school alone. Several years ago, when making a study of the methods in use in high schools for distributing and limiting pupil participation in activities, the writer had occasion to run through a number of high-school "annuals." The condition described in this school is somewhat more extreme than the others but essentially typical. Of some 1,500 pupils graduating from twelve high schools selected at random, nineteen per cent had failed at any time in their high-school courses to hold office or take part in activities which they considered of sufficient importance to be recorded after their names in the senior roll in the annual.

These facts are extremely significant for any serious study of extracurricular activities in our schools. Much of the current discussion of extracurricular benefits overlooks the variation in degree of participation among pupils and the fact that many pupils have no share at all in the activity program. Certainly whatever values there may be in these activities (and we believe them to be real, if only potential) cannot be achieved by those who do not participate.

Some people may say, "Well, of course, that situation is natural. The same thing is true in life everywhere. Some people are born to be leaders and others are born to be followers." We cannot shake off so easily our responsibility. Powers of leadership are not so limited as this point of view would imply. Most of us have had the experience of feeling, as some able and aggressive senior class was graduated, that with it went the majority of pupils of initiative and force in the student body, that there would be a dearth of leadership the following year. As the new year advanced the realization gradually dawned upon us that powers of leadership had developed mushroomlike

over the summer, and pupils whom we had not noticed before showed unsuspected qualities of initiative and responsibility. In every school there are potential leaders who have never been discovered.

The "faculty psychology" has presumably been abandoned, yet we retain it in the assumption of such general abilities as leadership. There is a fallacy in assuming that some people are born to be leaders and others to be followers. A much sounder point of view is that presented by President Suzzallo of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. In a stimulating discussion of the type of education needed to prepare citizens for democracy, President Suzzallo presents the concept of "alternating leadership." A college professor is sick. He goes to a doctor. The doctor is the expert whose advice carries weight. In this conference the physician is "leader." The professor wishes advice in regard to investment. He goes to a banker and accepts his advice. In this matter the banker is the leader. He wishes to have a pair of shoes repaired, or an electric extension installed. He goes to the shoemaker or calls in the electrician. In this case the cobbler or the electrician is in a very real sense the expert whose leadership is effective in his particular field. The banker wishes advice concerning the education of his son. He now comes to the professor, who in his turn is the leader.

It is obvious that in so complicated a series of relationships as is presented in modern civilization the rôles of leader and of follower are constantly shifting. Each individual is at one time leader and at other times follower. It is our task as teachers to help each pupil to find out his own interests and abilities, to discover that activity in which he can develop expertness, and to give him an opportunity to be a leader in it. This point is of such importance in the consideration of the distribution of extracurricular

experience that one might well elaborate it further. One writer characterizes democracy as "responsibility widely shared." In our preparation of pupils to live effectively under a democratic form of government we should aim to give to each of them the widest possible sharing of those joint responsibilities which are represented in the extracurricular program.

In considering the extent to which these opportunities are shared in any particular school one is confronted immediately with the lack of definite information. I doubt if there is one school in a hundred where teachers and principal have accurate and definite information showing how many pupils really participate in the activity program of the school and what percentage of the student body is left out of activities entirely. If we are to take seriously this problem of distributing extracurricular experience and of making the school an actual democracy, the first responsibility which rests upon the school would seem to be that of making a careful survey of participation.

A good illustration of the kind of thing which might well be done in every school is presented in *The School Review* for December 1926.¹ The survey took account of membership in high-school organizations, pupils holding offices, the amount of time given up to organization work, and, for those who did not take part, the reasons why the present organizations had failed to attract them. Suggestions of organizations which might be added and criticisms of present activities were solicited. The survey also included a study of activity programs as reported by officers of the various organizations. It resulted in a great deal of concrete information which made possible an intelligent revision of the extracurricular program in this school.

¹ Gertrude Jones, "Survey of Extra-curriculum Activities in the High School," *School Review*, XXXIV (December 1926), pp. 734-44.

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If the condition which was described in Bill's high school is to be corrected, three phases of extracurricular direction seem necessary. First, there must be limitation of participation to prevent overdoing on the part of the popular and aggressive and to ensure the wider distribution of opportunities when a few pupils are not allowed to monopolize them all. Second, participation by the less active must be encouraged in order that a greater number of pupils may derive the possible benefits. Third, there needs to be guidance in the choice of activities, that a pupil may choose wisely those extracurricular experiences which will be of most value to him.

A considerable number of schools in the United States has attempted a solution of these problems. In 1929 the writer had occasion to make a study of point systems in use. Three-hundred-fifty schools (out of a total of six hundred approached) sent information and data bearing upon the question. Of these, one hundred forty-five had some type of system for limiting or distributing participation in the activity program. Three main types of administrative systems were found. In the first a simple numerical limit is placed upon the participation of pupils. In the second type activities are divided into major and minor ones and pupils are limited as to the total number of "majors" and "minors" they may carry. In the third system activities are rated according to a point scale with varying numbers of points assigned to the different activities. In common parlance all three types of system are called "point systems" although the term would seem to be, strictly speaking, applicable only to the last of the three. A fourth device for regulating participation in activities is a group system in which the activities are classified on a common basis and pupils are limited as to the amount of participation within any one class. The point scale, on account of its flexibility and its

easy adaptation to a variety of purposes in connection with the extracurricular program, is by far the most popular.

The writer assisted in the revision of an activity point system in a suburban high school in New Jersey. A committee of pupils was appointed to work with the principal and the visiting investigator. The first work undertaken by the committee was a survey of the opportunity of participation in the school. Lists were made and checked by the various homerooms until it was felt that the lists of opportunities were complete. Next a check list was filled out by every pupil in the school. The list included all the opportunities for participation discovered in the survey previously mentioned. Pupils checked all the activities in which they had participated within the past year and stated the amount of time devoted to each. Membership in activities and organizations outside the school was also indicated. Pupils who filled positions of leadership or prominence filled out a second form listing the offices held. Such a survey of participation seems an essential first step for every school in making a study of its activity program.

Members of the senior class, as the pupil group best acquainted with activities in the school, and teachers were then asked to rate the various activities according to the importance attaching to each. Finally, on the basis of these ratings and the time spent in carrying on the work of the various organizations, the committee devised a point scale adapted to the conditions and needs of this particular school.

It seems fair to demand that every point system should provide some limit to the amount of activity which a pupil may undertake, as otherwise he is likely to carry an extracurricular load which is unjust to himself and to usurp more than his fair share of positions of prestige. What limit shall be set? Obviously the answer will differ in different schools. Activities which bear the

same name may differ markedly in content and in the amount of time and attention demanded. The limit placed should certainly be based upon the results of a survey. It should take account of the total number of opportunities available.

A question frequently asked is whether the pupil who is not doing satisfactory work in subject matter should be refused all participation in extracurricular activities. The answer to this query should be an unequivocal "No." It is quite possible that for many pupils enrolled in high schools as now organized, the most valuable educational opportunity they will or can receive will be that obtained from participation in certain extracurricular activities. To cut such a pupil off from the activity program may be to sever the one live contact he has with significant educational experience.

A variation in the number of activities in which the pupil may engage, however, seems justifiable. We have been paying increasing attention in recent years to the question of providing for individual differences. Certainly that provision may well be extended to the total load of curricular and extracurricular activities which any pupil may carry. Fifty-four of the one hundred forty-five schools considered had different limits of participation dependent upon the scholastic record.

Should some extracurricular experience be a prerequisite of graduation? A requirement to this effect does not seem to be in keeping with the stimulation of interest which is one of the justifications for the extracurricular program. One is reminded of the annoyed mother at the circus who turned her complaining offspring over her knee with the statement, "Now I've paid twenty-five cents for you to enjoy yourself and I mean you to do it." Interest may be inspired. It cannot be compelled. A sounder psychology would seem to be that which makes activity attractive to the more retiring and backward pupil, not one which

requires activity whether or not this meets with a live interest on his part.

A third duty of the school in connection with the participation in activities is that of guidance. The range of choice in which guidance is to be furnished is a wide one—as wide as the varied experiences of a modern school. Guidance in health, in recreation, in social pursuits is needed as well as guidance in the choice of occupation or of a high-school course. In this, the position of the homeroom is a strategic one. The teacher or adviser who conceives his function in terms of modern educational ideals will accept the obligation to be intelligently informed about those important phases of education which lie outside the classroom and to assist each pupil to choices which will contribute most in the growth of his personality.

No secondary school is without some extracurricular activity. No school can escape the responsibility for regulation of these activities in terms of a well-defined educational policy. The following steps are suggested as essential in putting into operation a plan for limiting, stimulating, and guiding participation in activities:

First, provide for the appointment or selection of a committee with pupil and teacher representation to be responsible for the development of a "point system." In case the school has a student council, the committee should take its franchise from that group and should be responsible to the council.

Second, prepare a complete list of available opportunities for participation in extracurricular activities in the high school.

Third, under the auspices of the point system committee, conduct a survey through homerooms to find out to what extent extracurricular experiences are distributed among the student body.

Fourth, determine an appropriate proportional scale for the various activities. Two elements which stand out as most significant

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in this determination of activity rating are the amount of time required for the duties of the activity and the importance or prestige which it carries.

Fifth, in accordance with local conditions and needs determine details of the point system to be used.

Sixth, present the system to the student body or its authorized representatives for final ratification.

Seventh, provide for a committee or board to administer the point system to the end that it may be responsive to changes in the activity program and to the needs of individual pupils.

The organization of such a system in every school should do much to make possible a fair distribution of those values which are inherent in the extracurricular program.

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HAROLD TORBOHM

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Torbohm wrote this article while an undergraduate student in the School of Education, New York University. It may be taken as a sample of the thinking of the undergraduate towards traditional educational practice.*

E. R. G.

SLAVISHLY applied, a symbol can become a fetter without our raising a finger, or even being conscious of what is going on. Let us consider, at some length, such a case which may explain, somewhat, why the progressive principles advocated by leading educators are so slow to be put into practice.

We, as a people, are ladder-to-success conscious. Pick up a current magazine and note how lavishly these ladders are displayed in the advertisements. On the inside front cover is pictured a keen-looking young chap mounting rapidly to the top of such a ladder. So that you will not fail to get the drift of the advertisement, the young man looks ahead smilingly at the burst of radiance labeled "success." To drive home his point further, the merchant has had the ladder propped up against the coupon for you to mail, which is going to send you on *your* road to achievement. Farther on in the magazine you will note a clever variation of the ladder-to-success motif. Here, a publishing house shows you its way to popularity. Instead of the ladder, we see an inviting flight of stairs. Books—quite naturally those of the advertiser—form steps. It takes but a moment's thought

to realize that this business man has really hit upon *the* way to fame and fortune. Who wouldn't prefer a solid flight of stairs to a risky ladder?

Applied to commercial interests, the ladder-to-success idea amuses us, but upon its invasion of our educational thinking, it assumes grave proportions causing our amusement to turn to deep concern. On every side we find evidence that the concept has left its effect upon our curriculum and our classroom procedure. We advance progressive theories of education in our teacher-training institutions but fail in such a large extent to put them into practice. It is my contention that the ladder-to-success idea is partly responsible for this state of affairs. We have come to the point where we take a merely useful mental concept or image for the actual situation for which it stands. Our convenient habit of picturing the road to success in a given field as a ladder, the rungs of which are to be mounted in order, one at a time, has led us astray; we have come to think of the actual reaching of success as subject to the limitations of our mental image; i.e., those imposed by the fact that the only way to the top (success)

is by climbing one rung after the other in orderly sequence. Applied to a school situation, we have come to believe that the only way a pupil can ever reach success in a study is by mastering each part of a more or less rigid curriculum just as it has been set up. My point here is not the old one which concerns itself with the validity of choice in gathering together material for a curriculum. Neither is it concerned with how this material shall be organized. It is rather with the fact that back of all this we have to deal with the ladder-to-success concept which is the reason that we still attempt to tell children that there is only one way for them to reach reward in a chosen field of endeavor—"As a man thinketh, so he is." However, as a basis for further discussion, let us briefly examine a curriculum which has been used as the ladder to civic success in one of our educational systems.

Down near the bottom of the ladder are placed rungs labeled: Knowledge of Our Water Supply—including four ways of purification; Knowledge of the Various Types of Water Faucets—including the ability to draw detailed diagrams of two types; and Knowledge of Dams and Aqueducts. Some distance up our ladder, we encounter such rungs as: Knowledge of the State Legislature, etc. The ladder is topped with: Knowledge of the Federal Government, and Knowledge of the Game Conservation Laws. In order for each boy and girl to become a good citizen, he or she must labor up the civic ladder, rung by rung. Failure to master enough of these knowledge rungs will cause the child to fail. The fact that he may have gone without candy to contribute to the Red Cross, helped a foreign pupil with his English lesson, and coöperated nicely with his classmates and with the teacher, means little; he failed to name the purification processes of water, include the little spring which shuts the faucet

off when not in use, and satisfactorily tell how the vice president is elected. Therefore, he has failed to climb our ladder to civic success.

If the idea of there being one ladder to success in an undertaking were correct, countless men who have become famous never would have reached that coveted position. Irving Berlin is probably the most successful popular song writer of today, yet he did not climb the ladder set up for him. The logical way to write music is to get, first, a thorough background in the rudiments of music; however, Berlin never did this. All of his songs have been "picked out" on the piano by one finger—an application of the "hunt and poke" system to music. It is quite true that this lack of knowledge has handicapped him, but the significant thing is that he has succeeded in writing successful songs in spite of it. The logical way would have been better, yes, but it was not the only one. I seriously doubt if President Hoover can draw a diagram of an approved water faucet, yet he has been chosen for the chief post of responsibility in our civic system. Clarence Darrow can hardly be said to possess those qualities of platform technique and poise demanded by a teacher of public speaking yet he continues to thrill audiences.

Despite actual life situations to the contrary, we continue to set up the way to success in our curricula and insist that it is the only one. Our once useful concept of the ladder has now grown to be a fetter; the image has become substituted for the thing for which it stands in our confused thinking.

If we find that the ladder symbol has become so firmly impressed upon our minds that the only way to submerge it is to substitute another image, we might picture success as the center of a circle. Around this center point would be found numerous concentric circles. Radii lead from the perimeter of the circle to its center. We, as in-

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dividuals desiring success in a venture, start out on this perimeter and travel down any one of the radii towards the center, which signifies success in our undertaking. If we find, after having gone some distance, that the path we have chosen is not suited to our individuality, we cross over to one of the other radii, using the perimeter of one of the concentric circles. We continue in this manner until we have found the path best suited to us. Of course, we lose time crossing from one radius to another, but we do not lose all as in the concept of the ladder; in this case it is impossible for us to proceed farther when we come upon rungs which are insurmountable to us.

Let me illustrate my figure of speech by considering the case of a child seeking success in, let us say, composition work. According to our old concept, the only way that the child can reach success is by climbing the ladder that we set up. We are not concerned with whether the curriculum is good or bad as set up; the point to bear in mind is that, after it is once set up, we worship it as the only path to success and require the child to follow it with very little deviation. Two of the rungs in the composition ladder would be: Ability to Spell Correctly and A Thorough Knowledge of Grammar. Now, it so happens that the child under consideration spells every tenth word abominably, and doesn't know an adverb from an adjective. However, he has good ideas and expresses them clearly. Furthermore, he likes to write. Under the old concept of education, he is doomed to fail to reach success until he has mastered spelling

and grammar. The chances are that the spark of creative genius in him will die out for lack of encouragement before he masters the formal side of writing, if he ever does.

Now let us consider the same child working under the concept of success as the center of a circle. The boy is made to feel that extended industry in any field of endeavor is bound to bring results. He is encouraged to try to surmount obstacles, but is warned against being permanently blocked by them. If he cannot climb over a stone wall, the next best thing is for him to go around it. The boy finds that he has great difficulty in handling grammar and spelling, but does not give up interest in writing because of this. Instead, he is encouraged by his teacher to develop the ability that he has—creative power—and is counseled to spend much time at it. As a result, by continued application along this line (radius) which is suited to his ability, the boy finally reaches success as a writer. When that happy stage has once been arrived at, it is a simple matter to get some person to make his creative efforts conform to the laws of rhetoric and grammar. To go back to our analogy of the circle, the child was encouraged to try various radii until he was finally able to reach the center. He was made to feel that success is an individual matter, and is reached in different ways.

However, before we can guide children as indicated above, we must look to our thinking as educators. Only after freeing ourselves from the ladder-to-success concept can we attempt to reorganize our classroom procedure to conform to the realities of life.

GOALS FOR A PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL IN A CHANGING AGE

ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

EDITOR'S NOTE: *I have characterized Arthur Seybold elsewhere as an artist teacher. Any one who has seen him at work will realize that this is true. Oak Lane is a school that is a prophecy.*
F. E. L.

IF A TRAVELER leaves his home and begins a long journey, he will find more enjoyment if he has made definite preparation for it. If he likes the pursuit of game or prey and the purpose of his expedition is hunting, he will derive more from his excursion if he makes a careful selection of the locale in which he wishes to pass his vacation and the equipment which he desires to take along with him.

At Oak Lane Country Day School of Temple University, we are at the outset of a journey in the field of education. We do not propose to leap from the springboard of the present status only to swim about in a pleasant sea of day dreams until severe criticism will arouse us from our period of reverie. It is our desire to vision the ultimate ends towards which most of our designs will tend; it is our hope to prove the worth of a few definite goals for progressive education in a changing age.

The goals which I here outline for your consideration may not be the most effective for our present period of doubt and uncertainty. They may not be the goals which you would value as most suited to the needs of this decade of vicissitude. Be that as it may, I have culled my quota of principles from the books and from the public addresses of our leading educators, and in my thinking I hope I have distilled a few profitable observations from my own alembic.

One of the most discussed needs of our present civilization is an increased power of adaptiveness. This does not mean a weak facile adjustment to every pressure that pounds at the consciousness of our children, but it does mean a more ready ability to meet the requirements of our changing conditions than the average student now possesses. The flexibility which I value as ne-

cessary will be developed in dancing classes, where elasticity of motion is brought to a beautiful rhythmic attainment. This same flexibility should be transferred from physical to mental expression so that the individual would become a unified well-balanced entity. The fixed mind and the traditional response must give way to the exercise of new approaches. Our industrial age has made this imperative. Our students must be no longer encumbered with the economic determinism which has held them captive. They must be placed in many situations where they will find wholesome activity in liberating themselves from the press of a mechanized existence, and where they will be divorced from the pressure of ideas no longer animate. This ability of intelligent adjustment is necessary for rhythmic living at the present time, and this increased power in adaptiveness appears to be needed more and more in the generations which are before us.

If flexibility of mind is important, the necessity of making decisions immediately appears as an urgent factor in our scheme of goals in education. We shall, then, need increased power in critical selection. This is demanded by the complexity of our twentieth-century environment. Our students are continually crossing hazardous thoroughfares. They are there subjected to the thousand and one stimuli which envelop them. A response to any one of these calls to action may lead to definite programs of work for that day or for many days. The flash of electric lights, the lure of the billboard, the whirl of machines, the clatter of truck and tram, the commotion of crowds, the hurry, the stress, and the strain of it all—is it any wonder that many of our children are bewildered? What shall we do

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about it? Simply this—place our students in many activities, intrinsically interesting to them, activities in which they will feel the need of selecting the right responses to the right stimuli—responses which will lead to those life processes possessing inherently within themselves attributes contributing to better life.

Before many of our modern folk may choose from the great number of homogeneous stimuli the few avenues which will direct them to these creative processes, a change in emotional control is demanded. We are so much in need of awakened sensibilities. Like the parade of phantoms which issued from the church on Fifth Avenue and passed the Hairy Ape of Eugene O'Neill with a patter of muffled feet, we have become so inured to the confusion about us that we can no longer hear cries of despair, and we are blind to the actualities which flash in infinite patterns before our eyes. As with *Petit the Poet* of Edgar Lee Masters, our environment has been reduced to seeds in a dry pod. Our pampered sensibilities are dulled, only the tick, tick, tick of the seeds convey meaning.

An awakening of our youth is needed. We must again feel deeply. Emotion is as necessary for our complex civilization as it was in the more simple generations of the past. We should not glorify war, we should not hallow the insensate traditions of yesterday, but we should be able to feel Valley Forge, to stand in the old church yard, to catch the spell of the chimes at sunset, and to have an inward consciousness of the struggle which here brought life to a new nation.

This awakening should be guided and directed carefully, so that no indoctrination would creep into our present life pattern. No fixed sentimental responses must be tolerated. Sincerity in imagination and simplicity in emotional control must guide us. Nothing could be more abhorrent than

the false, trite appeals of apparent demagoguery, but the abuses of the charlatan should not compel us to be insensible to the splendid meanings given by the past.

Is it possible to escape this multiplicity of appeals to activity with balanced emotional control? Modern thought has evolved a solution which I shall bring to you as my next necessary goal. I refer to the integrated personality. This power when happily possessed by any individual gives him a rhythmically regulated character. All attributes are so nicely balanced that no characteristic superimposes its influence on the other. The physical, mental, and spiritual being are as wonderfully interrelated in a theoretical structure as the "One Hoss Shay" of Oliver Wendell Holmes. Sometimes educators have referred to our attempts at the integration of personality with the same levity with which Holmes invested his antiquated carriage, but we have at last found that a philosophical, well-modulated behavior pattern has proved quite effective in our present civilization.

Henry Turner Bailey, in the February issue of *The Journal of the National Education Association*, has presented the philosophy of the integrated personality most admirably in an article which he calls the "Art of Living." The late Mr. Bailey himself was a master in the art of living. In his article, he has pictured the life of Professor Walter Sargent of Chicago University, giving us a sympathetic account of the manner in which Professor Sargent has developed a beautiful fusion of the physical, mental, and spiritual life. In closing his exposition, Mr. Bailey outlines a formula which so well expresses the requisites for living an enriched life that I place it here.

Accept thankfully what you are and what you have, and make the best of it.

Do things circumstances have led you to do, to pay your bills, and the things you most dearly love to do, to supplement, reënforce, and enrich your work.

Interrelate all of the elements of your life to enable you to be of the highest possible service to your fellow men.

Compete only with yourself and thank God for such an opportunity for growth!

My next goal practically dominates the public mind at the present time. Our present privative period has brought to our attention the absolute necessity of the cultivation of the social spirit. In our earlier days we constantly stressed individual freedom and the development of the individual personality. "This aim," says Dr. Dewey in the first issue of *School Management*, "corresponded with the realities of social life, for the national need was the material subjugation of a continent, the conquest of a wilderness. There was always a frontier just beyond, and the pioneer advanced to take possession of it. It was enough for the school to equip the individual with the tools of learning and to fire him with ambition and zeal to get on. His real education came in contact with others and in struggles with forces of nature. The aim was individualistic, but it was also in harmony with the needs of the nation.

"This earlier purpose has lost its vitality and meaning. It survives but it operates as an oppressive handicap. We live in an epoch of combination, consolidation, concentration. Unless these combinations are used democratically for the common good the result will be increasing insecurity and oppression for the mass of men and women."

This belief has met with much criticism because many people have thought that it would compel us to sacrifice the individual for the good of society, that it would standardize human beings as our entire environment has become regulated and controlled. This criticism is not entirely justified. Standardization of human beings must not be continued. We must be kept free so that we may develop our potentialities and powers to the fullest extent possible. Dr. Dewey obviates this censure. He states that, "Only

in respect to methods of thought and judgment should the earlier individualistic aim be retained; there it should be intensified. Democracy will be a farce unless individuals are trained to think for themselves, to judge independently, to be critical, to be able to detect in subtle propaganda the motives which inspire it. Mass production and uniform regimentation have been growing in the degree in which individual opportunity has waned. The current must be reversed. The note must be 'Learn to act with and for others, while you learn to think and judge for yourself.' "

The cultivation of the social spirit is now given much stress by our leading educators. I am willing to place it in my list of educational aims and to rate it as most important, but I am unwilling to push the need of creative activity into the background. The necessity of evolving a new social order must not lead us to forget the need of supplying an environment rich in possibilities for creativity.

Children as well as adults have talents rich in possibilities for exploration and development. It is not the purpose of the progressive school to produce sculptors, musicians, dancers, inventors, or executives at a premature age; but it is the function of any school to provide adequate opportunities for the exploration of any potentialities and powers which children possess. It should be demanded of the school that the individual characteristics of every child be studied most carefully, most sympathetically so that he would be given every opportunity for development in a natural and in a propitious environment.

Children as well as adults develop most happily with repeated successes. The majority of individuals achieve when they are engaged at activities in which they have innate ability. Out of the great mass of responses in which every student may find opportunity for effective release, he gradual-

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ly discovers a quota of media in which he lives most completely, in which he may achieve his mastery of life. The new school will extend the number and the possibilities of these media and it will infinitely enrich them.

For our sixth goal, then, I should like to emphasize the necessity of creative activity. Every child should be given the opportunity of entering classes in creative music, creative dancing, creative art, sculpture, manual arts, and creative drama. Classes for those whose aptitudes find enrichment along scientific and executive lines should also be organized, and these classes, like those in the art activities, should be placed in natural settings, centered about units of work intrinsically interesting to the students engaged in them.

Children are doing creative work which is so superior, so much above the standards hitherto conceived as possible by the educators of the past, that we now know we

have been encompassing our students with barriers of restraint. If we cannot remove this shell of inhibitions let us at least yield to it a resiliency which will give much more freedom to the aspirations and ambitions of childhood.

Where this has been done students have achieved unusual results. Original drama, sculpture, painting, invention, and creative executive ability are now found in progressive schools. Let this continue with much more freedom in a program of studies far more elastic than any which we now know.

These six goals, then, I believe to be most important for a progressive school in a changing civilization:

Our students must have (1) an increased power of adaptiveness, (2) power in critical selection, (3) an awakening of sensibilities, (4) an integrated personality, (5) ability to act with and for others while they think and judge for themselves; and (6) a much extended freedom for creative activities.

EAST TECHNICAL ORIENTATION PROGRAM

FRANKLIN R. BEMISDERFER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *East Technical High School, Cleveland, is manned by an energetic crew. The skipper, P. H. Powers, has the knack of getting his faculty to do unique things. Mr. Bemisderfer of this staff has made notable contributions to American education.* F. E. L.

HELPING new pupils to "acclimate themselves" (if I may be permitted the expression), so that their transition from grammar school or junior high school to high school is made with as little embarrassment to them as possible, ought to be a vital part of any senior-high-school program. Just as a play must have costumes and settings to appeal to an audience, so must a senior high school, if it would interest its new pupils, set a stage that provides educational facilities other than class instruction—especially a form of instruction and information that will enable the newcomer to adapt

himself to his new environment without loss of time or diminution of interest. Building a favorable attitude towards school unquestionably saves many boys to higher education.

The principal of East Technical in Cleveland, Ohio, has initiated a scheme whereby he, his vocational counselor, and a student leader visit nearly all of the senior-high preparatory schools each semester to give prospective pupils through movies, talks, and conferences a description of East Technical's activities and its various specializing departments. Fine coöperation on the part of

the junior high schools enables these representatives to spend many hours in the schools discussing with prospective pupils their future needs. As a result of these conferences, a boy can generally decide to his own satisfaction whether this school will satisfy his needs. Many doubtful points, at least, are cleared up and the boy enters East Technical on the first day of the semester with a receptive mind and a desire to get into harness.

The new pupil may be somewhat timid and shy, and this, coupled with emotional disturbances peculiar to this age, militates against the boy's chances for success. An unknown psychologist wrote, "Our intellect is a mere speck afloat on a sea of feeling. This speck is of tremendous importance, to be appreciated, respected, and increased, however possible."¹ As teachers, we all realize that a boy does feel more than he thinks; and if his feelings are hurt, we probably do little with this speck of intellect—in fact, the boy may rebel and withdraw from school during the first semester, as hundreds of them do. It is interesting to note in this connection that studies show these withdrawals include about as many brilliant as dull pupils.

The first step towards helping the boy to adjust himself to his new environment is made when he is greeted at the door on the opening day of school by one of the members of the Adelpian Club (big brothers) who escorts him to the auditorium. There he finds boys from his own school and later on when these groups are broken up he meets and mingles with boys from other schools. When the boys have had a chance to get their bearings, the principal appears on the stage and tells them a few things about the procedure for the first few weeks, also pointing out certain important bits of information in the school handbook, *Path-*

finder, which has previously been given to each student, after which he introduces the other officers of the school asking each to tell what he does. The president of the student council gives a short talk followed by the president of the Adelpian Club on the obligations of the members of the Club. Pupils are then introduced to homeroom teachers by the dean after which the responsibility for each freshman group rests directly with the homeroom teacher and the two Adelpian boys.

To make a boy really happy in his school it is necessary that he understand why he is given certain periods in class and see the reason for his having to study mathematics or English, or whatever his particular dislike may be, if any. Accordingly, the homeroom teachers during the first two weeks explain the course of study and East Technical requirements. A letter explaining this and the general school regulations is sent to the parents who are requested in turn to list on an enclosed card to be returned to the school any information concerning the habits of the boy which might be valuable to the teacher. This method can be very effective in convincing the boy and the parent that certain required courses are essential to a well-rounded education and prevent many cases of maladjustment, as well as give the parent valuable information about the school which they frequently do not get.

Just as soon as the boy becomes acquainted with his new surroundings and the aims of the school, he hears a series of programs during homeroom periods, at the rate of one a week, on the habits one ought to acquire to ensure success. These programs, which have to do with health, conduct, methods of study, and citizenship, we believe should be conducted by teachers of proved ability. At East Technical this is made possible by grouping all the freshman homerooms in four large centers, an arrange-

¹ T. H. Briggs, *Curriculum Problems* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926).

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ment which permits assigning the individual teacher one program a semester. This procedure provides for the participation of all teachers but does not burden the already overworked class teacher with the responsibility of preparing for a large number of programs a term, and it gives the homeroom teacher extra time for the important obligation of planning and holding the individual conferences with the boys.

Student participation in activities is a vital part of orientation. The Adelpian boys, trained the previous semester, play a large part in the organization of their groups and the location of budding talent within their groups; all others are afforded opportunities to appear as early in the semester and as often as they have something really worth while in the judgment of the two hundred boys of their group or others concerned. One boy from each homeroom is elected student-council representative at the end of the first three weeks as a companion to the Adelpian representative. Representatives-at-large are chosen later by homeroom teachers and the dean as they show ability to influence student opinion in the right direction. Observing the Adelpian boys, they see real leaders at work. These "big brothers" spend much of their time finding and listing all kinds of talent represented which is made available to all teachers and pupils who are responsible for this phase of schoolwork. As they show promise, either in acquiring the qualities of leadership or becoming an artisan as an entertainer, they are afforded opportunities to plan projects, take part in programs, or even to plan and execute the program themselves.

To succeed in East Technical a boy should study one hour or more at home five nights a week. This is the keynote of a series of "how-to-study programs." This necessitates a revision of the time budget for many boys, but after having this emphasized on five programs, most boys, especially after the

warning cards are issued at the end of the first three-week period to parents of boys who are low in scholarship, form the habit of regular study. We try to show these boys during one homeroom period a week the value of hard work, good health, and the importance of proper conduct which industry will demand of them as leaders.

Revealing to new pupils the objectives of the school, through weekly vocational talks and demonstrations by heads of departments, enables them to visualize the requirements and possibilities of the sixteen special departments in the school. Each speaker is asked to list the entrance requirements of the departments, the personal inclinations essential to success, kinds of tasks one may expect illustrated by apparatus on the stage, the importance of this line of work, and the chances for employment at graduation—in fact, it is the whole department brought to the attention of the boy. For instance, an applicant for the electrical construction course who enters the school with preconceived ideas may discover through this means, as many do, that he should not take the course because he lacks certain inclinations or aptitudes.

The choice of the proper course is greatly facilitated by interviews between homeroom teacher and pupil and the conference which each pupil has with the vocational counselor and the freshman dean. While the Adelpian boys make many contacts with new pupils and help them solve many problems that arise in this connection, they also do most of the routine work, freeing the homeroom teacher during homeroom period and at other times to interview boys both individually and collectively. But the crowning feature of this type of guidance is the semi-formal conference which each member of the freshman class has with the vocational counselor and the freshman dean. This friendly little visit makes the boy feel that some one is interested in him and his suc-

cess. It forms the basis of other interviews and tends to arouse his interest in the possibilities of the school. It is in these interviews that the various specialization courses are first mentioned in detail. The student is helped to interpret his own sociological background, after taking into consideration his interest and ability to do school work.

One of the most effective methods of instilling confidence into the new pupil and developing his abilities is to discover latent powers and develop talent which has already been discovered in most cases by the splendid work of the junior high schools. Many boys come to us anxious to participate in musical programs, dramatics, comedy, and the like. Accordingly, twenty minutes are set aside during the regular homeroom period twice a week for these "local-talent" and student-activity programs.

The Adelphian boys from each of the four centers have little difficulty in scheduling each week a program which will include the accordion, saxophone, voice, sleight of hand, student speakers, etc. It is gratifying to note that over twenty per cent of these boys when properly encouraged embrace the opportunity to appear on these programs during their first semester and many of them do not stop with one performance. Our aim is not so much a finished degree of performance as it is to find talent of all degrees of excellence and encourage its development. Our musical director is eager to locate talent in all stages of development and after diagnosing the pupil's needs he advises the embryo artist as to the next step which he ought to take. Such diagnosis is a real function in all departments of the school. Near the end of the semester the best talent in all lines

is selected for an all-freshman assembly.

The homeroom teacher frequently finds it desirable to consult with the class teacher with respect to the pupil's progress. Many difficulties are anticipated in so doing, and much maladjustment prevented. Information resulting from such consultation, attendance records, and warnings mailed to the parents of failing pupils every three weeks are recorded on cumulative record cards which originate with the counselors in their initial interview with the pupil. This information enables the homeroom teacher to make an intelligent contact with the parent in a home visit. In this visit the bond between the teacher and parent, between teacher and pupil, and between parent and pupil is considerably strengthened. All parties concerned are stimulated and a spirit of coöperation developed which is obtainable in no other way. Approximately ninety per cent of our parents are desirous of helping the school and most of our teachers are making excellent records through this plan which in many instances turns potential truants into conscientious pupils. The writer wishes to add that in his judgment there is no more effective way of building up the confidence of the public in the public schools.

To epitomize what has been said, it is the aim of the school to lay a substantial foundation in desirable habit building, establish the pupil's proper social relationship, assist in making his vocational choice, and set a high standard of scholarship for him at the beginning of his high-school career. It also locates potential leaders and develops them to take their places as leaders of the school of tomorrow, instead of waiting until tomorrow to train the leaders of tomorrow.

ADMINISTRATIVE DEVICES FOR STIMULATING JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL SCHOLARSHIP

C. C. TRILLINGHAM

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Trillingham asked twenty-five Los Angeles County Junior-high-school principals to rank administrative devices for stimulating scholarship. He is a teaching fellow at the University of Southern California.

F. E. L.

IT WOULD be extremely difficult to list all devices of an administrative nature that aid in the improvement of scholarship. Many of them influence pupil effort in a profound manner, while others are of quite minor importance. They make up a large part of school machinery. Time and space necessitate limiting this article to a consideration of such devices as are widely recognized and utilized in Southern California junior high schools because of the strong positive influence upon scholarship.

The author personally interviewed the principals of twenty-five Los Angeles County junior high schools in 1931. Sixteen of these schools were in the Los Angeles system, the remainder being distributed in Long Beach, Pasadena, Santa Monica, South Pasadena, San Pedro, Hollywood, and Willowbrook. The enrollments of these schools ranged from 400 to 2,250 pupils.

A check list of twenty-five administrative devices for stimulating scholarship was submitted to each principal. This list was set up from the experience, observation, and reading of the author. Each principal was asked to add any other worth-while devices used in addition to those on the check list. Not only did most of the principals use a majority of the devices, but no principal added more than three new ones to the list and many of them did not make a single addition. Each principal was asked to check each device used in his school and to rank what he considered the five most important devices used for stimulating and improving scholarship.

The accompanying table gives the names of the first fifteen devices, their rankings by points, and their final rankings as to im-

portance, based upon the composite judgment of the principals. Final rankings were determined by assigning points to each device upon the following basis: five points for each time the device was ranked first in importance, four points for each second, three points for each third, two points for each fourth, and one point for each fifth.

WEIGHTED RANKING OF DEVICES IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE AS REVEALED BY COMPOSITE RANKINGS OF PRINCIPALS

Devices	Points Assigned	Rank
Supervised study in connection with recitation period	82	1
Personal interviews with pupils ..	57	2
Homogeneous grouping of pupils .	52	3
Testing program with proper follow-up procedure	43	4
Failure notices sent home frequently	29	5
Membership in honor societies	26	6
Teachers' clinics or meetings concerning pupils	16	7
Make-up work classes with counselor or teachers	10	8
Scholastic requirements to represent school	9	9
Special adjustment cases	5	10
Deprivation of privileges for failing work	5	10
Special clubs (manual arts, Latin, nature study, etc.)	5	11
Merit system	5	12
Individual or class awards	4	13
Excellent scholarship notices sent home frequently	3	14
Limitation of number of activities pupils may engage in	2	15

The table shows that supervised study, with 82 points, is recognized by the principals as the most important administrative device in its effect upon scholarship; per-

sonal interviews with pupils rank second with 57 points; homogeneous grouping of pupils is third with 52 points; the testing program is fourth with 43 points; and failure notices sent home frequently rank fifth with 29 points. The remaining devices in the table were considered much less important in their bearing upon scholarship. The ten devices in the original check list not given in the table because of their minor significance are listed as follows: exemption from examinations, exemption from study-hall attendance, school exhibits, publication of honor rolls, visiting-teacher work, special system of make-up work for absentees, limitation of class sizes, half holidays or special holidays, and detention rooms.

In addition to the check-list devices, the other effective scholarship devices offered by the principals are here mentioned:

Adjustment rooms for mathematics and English, homeroom used for study purposes, tea parties for parents of pupils at which coöperation is sought, honor banner for homeroom highest in scholarship for period, special classes for normal and bright children who are below normal in reading and arithmetic, conferences with elementary teachers, "good English" posters, honor-society party each term, scholarship bulletin twice a week, teachers' curricular committees, and faculty clearing-house committee responsible for all failures.

The greatest number of the 25 devices used by any of the schools was 21; the least number used was 12. Hence the use of such devices for stimulating scholarship in junior high schools seems to be a prevalent practice in Southern California.

All of the 25 schools contacted used failure notices sent home frequently, the testing program, and personal interviews with pupils, while 24 of the schools used supervised study. This would indicate that junior high schools are taking into account individual pupil differences and are stressing

devices which increase the personal contact between teachers and pupils.

The fact that none of the schools grants exemption from examinations perhaps shows that it is a device which, because of its nature and purpose, should be administered to all pupils.

If use is the criterion for judgment, the twenty-four schools making use of supervised study furnish evidence that supervised study is better adapted to junior high schools than the study-hall scheme for the preparation of lessons.

Seventy-six per cent of the schools make an effort to adjust pupils and subject matter. Thus it is quite probable that the old philosophy of trying to adjust pupils to subject matter is giving way to that of adapting subject matter to individual pupils.

Since 92 per cent of the schools make an effort to prevent pupils from overloading with extracurricular activities, it appears that pupils naturally "flock" to the activities to the detriment of their academic subjects, unless otherwise regulated.

Only 20 per cent of the schools used a regular system of make-up work for absentees. This may mean that the make-up problem is too insignificant to warrant setting up school-wide machinery or that school heads may not be utilizing their opportunities to the fullest extent.

The desire for membership in the honor society acts as an incentive for good scholarship in many of the schools.

Eighty-four per cent of the schools insist on their pupils meeting certain scholastic standards before they may represent the school. This seems to indicate that there is general belief that scholarship is basic and should come first. This idea is also evidenced by the fact that 72 per cent of the 25 schools deprive pupils of certain privileges unless they meet scholastic requirements.

Although 84 per cent of the schools have

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extensive club work, its low ranking in scholastic importance implies that the advantages to scholarship are second in importance to other values attributed to its use.

The apparent disagreement which exists among the principals as to their choice of the most important devices may perhaps be attributed to different conditions within the schools, such as the general level of mentality, the number of foreign pupils enrolled, the age of the school, to the different philoso-

phies, experiences, and types of training of the principals, or to a combination of factors.

Finally, it is apparent from the evidence presented that most principals consider as most important those devices that appeal to and bear upon individual pupils in a highly positive manner. It is a good sign that considerable attention is being paid to the normal and bright pupils as well as to the slower ones, and to general social aims as well as to specific subject-matter aims.

THE PARIS PACT IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

PHILANDER P. CLAXTON

EDITOR'S NOTE: For many years, Dr. Claxton, chairman of the Committee in Charge of the National Student Forum of the Paris Pact, has given to American education a competent and inspiring leadership. For fifteen years, he was United States Commissioner of Education. Since 1920 he has served as superintendent of schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma, and as president of Austin Peay Normal School, Clarksville, Tennessee. The editors welcome Dr. Claxton's clear and forceful presentation of the desirability of presenting the Paris Pact to our students as a "way of life."

P. W. L. C.

UP TO July 24, 1929, school teachers in the United States had no legal justification for teaching anti-war doctrine to public-school students. Since then they have no excuse for not doing so. Before that date, if they taught the futility of war, it could plausibly be said they were setting forth "propaganda"! Since that date they are teaching the higher citizenship in compliance with the supreme law of the land when they expound the renunciation of war and the settlement of all international differences only by "pacific means."

It is the Pact of Paris that has made the difference. On the notable date mentioned, all the "signatories" of that treaty, having, according to the requirements of their various constitutions, ratified the agreement made by their plenipotentiaries, President Hoover, before the representatives of the fifteen countries concerned, declared the Pact of Paris to be in full force. Since that date practically all other countries of the

world have "adhered" to the Pact. By the Constitution of the United States a treaty becomes a part of "the supreme law of the land." Moreover, this treaty represents the peak of development of our foreign policy. Because the Paris Pact is a part of the law of our country, the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. William John Cooper, says: "Our schools are under obligation to teach it." The National Education Association at several of its meetings has urged the schools to teach the Pact. It should be taught both in letter and spirit.

How the scene has changed for patriotic, forward-looking teachers! Hitherto many teachers, although convinced that the verdict of history as well as of ethics and common sense was against war, hesitated to teach the truth as they saw it. They feared more or less the opinion and influence of war-minded citizens of their communities who could not think complaisantly of the world coming to its senses on this question. Too often these

persons stood ready to cause trouble for teachers who dared to discuss this question truthfully and frankly. They were quick to raise the cry "unpatriotic" against these teachers. The critics of the teachers had this simple fact on their side—that although the moral judgment of a large portion of mankind had repudiated this national and international sin, the sin had not been made a national and international crime. Now this sin of war is also a crime. The Pact of Paris has made it illegal and the Pact is international law. The teachers' feet now stand on solid rock. They are free to teach what they know to be true. Teachers whose convictions are only slowly dawning have assurance from the highest authority that it is their duty to teach the new and higher patriotism.

Little wonder then that the teachers of the country are now teaching the Paris Pact in the schools everywhere. The chief school officers of practically all States have joined with the United States Commissioner of Education in urging and promoting such teaching. City and county superintendents, high-school principals, and progressive teachers are heartily coöperating. In 1929-1930, according to the records, 3,500 principals and teachers of history and other social sciences and 122,000 students in 1,600 high schools joined in teaching and studying the Paris Pact. In 1930-1931 these numbers had grown to 6,000 principals and teachers and 200,000 students in 2,600 high schools. In 1931-1932 they increased to more than 6,500 principals and teachers and 220,000 students in 2,800 schools. For the school year now beginning these numbers will, no doubt, be still larger. All high schools should give the subject its full amount of time and attention. All high-school boys and girls should somewhere in their course receive systematic instruction in international relations. Soon they will be voters, directing their representatives in Congress and other officials in making and carrying out international policies. This in-

struction should, must, include the Paris Peace Pact and its far-reaching results. Not only knowledge but intelligent sentiment should be the result.

Having been given the facts and taught to think logically, their minds free from irrational prejudices, it will be easy for these boys and girls, young men and young women, to understand the unreasonableness of maintaining large armies and navies at the cost of crushing burdens of taxation when all nations have solemnly pledged themselves not to seek the settlement of any national problem except by pacific means. It will help them to sense the selfish interests of those who advocate such policies for financial profit. It will help them to understand better that type of patriotism which is "the last resort of the scoundrel."

The fresh, vigorous thought of the high-school students of the country repudiates the idea of repeating the story of the World War—10,000,000 known dead; 3,000,000 presumed dead soldiers; 13,000,000 dead civilians; 20,000,000 combatants and civilians wounded; 9,000,000 war orphans; 5,000,000 war widows; 10,000,000 refugees—all to no purpose—no problems settled, but rather complicated and made more difficult of settlement by the only possible means of settlement—pacific means.

This fresh and vigorous student thought sees the absurdity of the nations spending nearly five billions of dollars annually on armaments at any time, and especially in times of depression like this. It scorns the idea of such expenditures for profit of armament makers and professional militarists, for show, for false dignity, or for the sinister purpose of reactionaries in high places. When rightly informed it will easily see that the plain logic of the Paris Pact and the general economic situation is *real disarmament* by international agreement. It will approve all reasonable steps in this direction by our own country and will rightly expect it

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to assume leadership openly and fearlessly.

There are nearly five million boys and girls in our high schools, much more than one third the total population of high-school age. Soon these boys and girls will be voters. They will be coming to voting age at the rate of more than one million a year. They will have large influence on public opinion and popular sentiment. Most of them will not go to college. Whatever systematic instruction they are to get on this question of international re-

lations must be given in the high schools. Under present conditions it is of the highest importance. Since many of them will not stay in high school for graduation this instruction should be given as fully as possible in the first two years. It can be given more fully and comprehensively in the last high-school year.

Seldom do the schools have opportunity for so definite, direct, and far-reaching influence. They should not fail to use it.

THE GRADUATES OF THE SMALLER HIGH SCHOOLS¹

C. M. WHITLOW

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We are indebted to Dr. Rugg for this report of a study by Mr. Whitlow, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley. We need to know much more than we do about the graduates of our small high schools. Some of the conclusions of this study should furnish the bases of more extended investigations.*

F. E. L.

RELATIVELY little is known concerning the ultimate destination of the graduates of our high schools, particularly those completing their work in the smaller high schools of the country. Yet approximately half of the high schools of the United States have enrollments of less than 100. Scarcely any of these small high schools maintain any sort of a follow-up system of information. In order to gather information concerning the graduates of these smaller high schools, the names of 1,155 graduates for the year 1923 were secured from the principals of 50 different small high schools scattered over the States of Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, and Wyoming. In only two cases did the number of graduates of the schools included in this study exceed 50; the median for the 50 schools was 20.5.

Questionnaires were mailed to 1,070 of the 1,155 graduates. It was impossible to secure the addresses of the remainder. Replies

were received from 564 of the question blanks, representing 52.7 per cent of all possible replies. A subsequent check with the high-school principals of these schools concerning the status of those who did not respond indicates rather conclusively that the 564 replies received represent a fair sampling of all the graduates. There is no reason to believe that a complete response from all of graduates would have changed the data significantly.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADUATES

The distribution and mobility of the graduates after leaving school is a matter of considerable importance in the organization and administration of a high school. Just what proportion of the graduates continue as citizens of the local high-school community is a question of great significance in rural secondary schools. Previous studies of this matter have shown a surprising degree of mobility. The present study proved no exception. In Table I is shown the location of the 1,155 graduates of the class of 1923 seven years after leaving high school.

¹ Based upon a more extended investigation, Field Study No. 1, presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Ph.D. degree, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, 1931.

TABLE I
THE DISTRIBUTION OF 1,155 HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES
OF THE CLASS OF 1923 SEVEN YEARS AFTER
GRADUATION

Present Location	Number	Per Cent
Local community	497	43.03
Home State	337	29.18
Other States	250	21.64
Unlocated	56	4.85
Deceased	15	1.30
TOTAL	1,155	100.00

After the lapse of this relatively short period of time but 43.03 per cent of the graduates were in the local high-school community; 29.18 per cent had migrated to other communities in the local State; 21.64 per cent had moved to other States; the location of 4.85 per cent was not determined; and 1.3 per cent were deceased.

In a previous study of the distribution of the graduates of a single Wyoming² high school the author found 42.74 per cent in the local community; 15.38 per cent in other communities of the local State; 35.47 per cent in other States; and 6.41 per cent deceased. The classes of 1910-1923 were included in that study. Dolch³ and Young⁴ reported distributions in Illinois and Indiana, respectively, which are similar and equally significant. Leech⁵ reported the distribution of the graduates of a Nebraska high school over a period of 35 years, 1888-1923. The span of time covered was much longer than that of the other studies and there is a correspondingly higher degree of migration from the local community and the State. Leech found but 19.31 per cent of the graduates in the home town; 38.62 per cent

were in other Nebraska towns; and 42.07 per cent had migrated to other States.

The available data justify the conclusion that the majority of high-school graduates do not remain in the local community long after graduation. Evidence in the present study shows that the migratory tendency is not peculiar to any particular school or section of the country studied; it is a general phenomenon among the graduates of the small high schools. Migration was more likely from a small than from a larger community; and in all cases was distinctly urbanward. It is doubtful whether the small communities have a compensating influx of high-school graduates from other localities. If not, we must conclude that the smaller communities are being drained of the better educated and more capable individuals to the advantage of the larger and wealthier communities.

Data also indicate that those with lower scholarship and a lesser degree of education beyond high school tend to remain in the local community, while the more intellectual and the more thoroughly educated individuals tend to migrate towards the cities. The relation between migratory tendencies and the amount of education received after graduation from high school is shown in Table II. We find 74.58 per cent of the men and 73.91 per cent of the women who graduated from college in some other than the local high-school community. Of those who attended but did not graduate from college, 59.72 per cent of the men and 67.11 per cent of the women had left the local high-school community. On the other hand, of those who did not attend college but 36.23 per cent of the men and 49.06 per cent of the women had migrated. Unless it can be shown that the college graduates are really just exchanging communities rather than leaving the smaller communities, the degree of intellectual impoverishment taking place in the small communities is highly significant.

² C. M. Whitlow, "The Geographical Distribution of High-School Graduates," *School Review*, XXXIX (March 1931), pp. 213-216.

³ E. W. Dolch, "Geographical and Occupational Distribution of Graduates of a Rural High School," *School Review*, XXXIII (June 1925), pp. 413-421.

⁴ O. E. Young, "Migratory Trends of High-School Graduates; 1900-1930," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XIII (February 1931), pp. 148-151.

⁵ Don R. Leech, "Scholarship and Success in Life," *School Review*, XXXVIII (March 1930), pp. 222-226.

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TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES IN RELATION TO THE AMOUNT OF COLLEGE EDUCATION RECEIVED

Education	Local community		Elsewhere	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
College graduates	25.42	26.09	74.58	73.91
College nongraduates	40.28	32.89	59.72	67.11
No college	63.77	50.94	36.23	49.06

The general migratory propensity of the high-school graduates raises a question concerning the justifiability of attempting to adapt the curriculum of the small high school to the social-civic needs of the small community. Some may contend that a proper modification of the curriculum would tend to decrease the amount of migration. However, if we accept existing facts as a basis for our conclusion, the implication of the data is that the small high school should provide for a generalized rather than for a localized citizenship. For large high schools the case may be different.

The degree of mobility, particularly the urbanward trend, also suggests the possible need for modification of the present plan for the financial support of the small high school. If the financial support should come from those communities to which the benefits accrue, the present plan for assessing the costs of secondary education is decidedly unjust to the smaller communities. It appears that the small communities are taxing themselves to educate large numbers on the secondary level who will contribute nothing to local citizenship. Possibly the major portion of the support for secondary education should be levied on a State-wide basis rather than on the basis of small local units.

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRADUATES

Few studies have had for their purpose the determination of the ultimate occupational destination of the graduates of small

high schools. Thorndike and Symonds* after studying the occupations of the graduates of a city high school concluded that "high-school graduates make their life careers in occupations that are among the more intellectual and refined." Dolch⁷ found that the men who graduated from a rural high school gravitated particularly towards agriculture, business, and the professions. The women became housewives, teachers, and clerical workers, for the most part.

The occupational distribution for the population of the United States as a whole is shown in Table III. A comparison of this

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS*

Occupation	Men	Women
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	32.9	22.6
Agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry	29.8	12.7
Clerical	5.1	16.7
Professional service	3.4	11.9
Trade	10.8	7.8
Transportation	8.6	2.5
Domestic and personal service	3.7	25.6
Extraction of minerals	3.3	—
Public service	2.3	0.3
TOTAL	99.9	100.1

distribution with that for the graduates of the present study shows that but about 50 per cent of the normal number of men graduates enter agricultural pursuits, and this in spite of the fact that the schools represented in the study are located almost exclusively in agricultural districts. A considerably higher percentage of the graduates than of the population at large entered the professions, clerical work, and the public service. Fewer entered the transportation

* E. L. Thorndike and P. M. Symonds, "The Occupations of High-School Graduates and Non-Graduates," *School Review*, XXX (June 1922), pp. 443-450.

⁷ E. W. Dolch, *op. cit.*, pp. 419-421.

* Data from *Abstract of the Fourteenth Census of the United States, 1920* (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census, 1923), p. 482.

service; and assuming that the larger portion of those in the population at large engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries were laborers, the percentage of laborers among the graduates is exceedingly low.

A percentage distribution of the occupations of 223 men and 335 women of the present study is shown in Table IV. Here

TABLE IV
A PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE OCCUPATIONS OF
HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES SEVEN YEARS AFTER
LEAVING SCHOOL

Occupation	Men	Women
Housewives	—	56.12
Business	28.24	—
Professions	11.66	19.70*
Agriculture	14.79	—
Trades	13.45	—
Clerical	9.87	14.62
Salesladies	—	2.99
Common labor	5.83	—
Public service	5.38	—
Transportation	3.14	—
Students	3.14	2.09
Miscellaneous	4.49	4.48
TOTAL	99.99	100.00

we find that 28.24 per cent of the men entered business; 14.79 per cent, agriculture; 13.45 per cent, trades; 11.66 per cent, the professions; 9.87 per cent, clerical work; 5.83 per cent, common labor; 5.38 per cent, public service; 3.14 per cent, transportation; 3.14 per cent were students; and 4.49 per cent entered various miscellaneous occupations.

Among high-school graduates, the occupational distribution of the women is much simpler than that for men. More than 90 per cent of the women graduates entered three rather distinct occupational pursuits. The percentage of housewives, 56.12 per cent at the time these data were collected, will naturally be augmented with the lapse of time, reducing correspondingly certain of

the other percentages. Assuming that the preparation for teaching, a pursuit which claimed 19.7 per cent of the women of this study, is the prerogative of a professional school, this item can be ignored in considering the curriculum of the small high school. Most of the remainder of the women, 14.62 per cent, became office workers, principally stenographers and secretaries. Consequently, in relation to occupational probabilities, the small high school should emphasize courses in homemaking and commercial work for the girls. Since a smaller percentage of the girls than of the boys continue their education beyond the high school, and since their occupational destination is more certain, specific emphasis in the curriculum for girls upon homemaking and clerical work seems justifiable.

Table IV really simplifies matters a little too much with respect to the occupational probabilities in the case of the men graduates. Space forbids a complete statement of the matter. Suffice it to say that the 223 men entered a total of 104 rather relatively distinct pursuits. Preparation for any one of these 104 pursuits represents a considerable degree of specialization. Under these circumstances occupational guidance for boys on the part of the high school becomes an exceedingly complex undertaking. Definite occupational specialization under these circumstances is a dubious procedure. It seems safe to conclude that the small high school should confine its efforts for boys to a broad generalized training, leaving the matter of vocational specialization to be cared for after graduation from high school. This is not to be construed as an objection to the dissemination of occupational information; rather, the intricate occupational possibilities confronting the boy who graduates from high school bespeak increased opportunities for occupational information during the high-school career.

For all the graduates in the aggregate, in

* Teachers.

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less than 20 per cent of the cases was there any apparent direct relation between the major taken in high school and the occupation entered. In 30 per cent of the cases there was what might be designated as an indirect relation. In 50 per cent of the cases there was no relation whatever apparent, either direct or indirect.

ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE GRADUATES

Adequate information for planning guidance courses in budgetary practices demands definite knowledge concerning the probable future income of the high-school graduate. In Table V is presented a distribution of the incomes of 219 men and 138 women seven years after graduation from high school. Most of the married women did not report incomes. The median income for the men was \$1,884.87; and for women \$1,126.93. The complete data for the study show that the median income for married men was \$1,982.56; and for unmarried men, \$1,757.88. The median income reported by married women was \$1,097.23; and by unmarried women, \$1,138.30. Sound guidance counsel of students will recognize the relative values of absolute incomes.

This study did not confirm the popular notion that there is no relation between scholarship and economic success. The median income reported by men with scholarship average or below was exactly \$1,830.00; that for men with scholarship above average, \$1,979.17. The median income reported by unmarried women with scholarship average or below was \$1,090.00; that for unmarried women with scholarship above average, \$1,271.74. These figures contradict the findings of Shannon and Farmer.¹⁰ They found no positive correlation between scholarship and financial success. However, they used comparatively few cases in their study. The

results of the present study are confirmed in general by Gifford's¹¹ investigation of the incomes of the employees of the American Telegraph and Telephone Company, and Leech's¹² study of the accumulated wealth of the graduates of a Nebraska high school.

Those graduates who completed a college course reported incomes definitely in excess of those reported by noncollege attendants. This in spite of the fact that the college graduates had been in the income earning class four years less than the noncollege group.

TABLE V
DISTRIBUTION OF THE INCOMES OF HIGH-SCHOOL
GRADUATES SEVEN YEARS AFTER
LEAVING HIGH SCHOOL

Income	Men	Women
\$ 749 or less	9	20
\$ 750-1,249	21	65
\$1,250-1,749	59	44
\$1,750-2,249	76	8
\$2,250-2,749	31	1
\$2,750-3,249	14	0
\$3,250 or more	9	0
TOTAL	219	138
MEDIAN INCOME	\$1,884.87	\$1,126.93

MARITAL STATUS OF THE GRADUATES

Seven years after graduation from high school, 50 per cent of the men and 66 per cent of the women were married. Fifty-two per cent of the married men and nearly 63 per cent of the married women had one or more children. The rapidity with which the graduates assume the obligations of home-making suggests that possibly the high-school curriculum should give relatively more attention to information pertinent to domestic responsibility. Comparatively few of the girl graduates majored in home economics while in high school; those who did, and who were married, in a very high percentage of cases said that this subject was

¹⁰ J. R. Shannon and James C. Farmer, "The Correlation of High-School Scholastic Success with Later Financial Success," *School Review*, XXXIX (February 1931), pp. 130-133.

¹¹ Walter S. Gifford, "Does Business Want Scholars?" *Harpers*, CLXVI (May 1928), pp. 669-674.

¹² Don. R. Leech, *op. cit.*, pp. 225-226.

the most valuable in the curriculum. And yet the courses in so-called home economics are rather meager in comparison with what they might be. Something more than cooking and sewing is needed. The following topics suggest a few of the rich possibilities which the small high school might undertake with profit to the students, both boys and girls: household budgets based upon probable income; insurance and savings; the purchase of homes, furniture, and clothing; household mechanics; household physics and chemistry; hygiene and physical welfare. As has been noted, predictions concerning probable occupational destination, especially in the case of the boys, is very uncertain. The tendency has been to emphasize vocational and occupational guidance and neglect the more certain need for information concerning domestic responsibility.

EDUCATION BEYOND THE HIGH SCHOOL

Slightly more than 54 per cent of the graduates of this study attended a college or university for some period of time. A distribution of the graduates in relation to the amount of education received beyond the high school is shown in Table VI. Of the total number of 564 graduates, 45.74 per cent did not continue their education beyond the high school; 15.60 per cent attended college one year; 10.46 per cent attended two years; 6.92 per cent attended three years; 16.67 per cent attended four years; and 4.61 per cent attended more than four years.

In comparison with other studies the college attendance of the graduates of this study was rather high. As a matter of fact the region represented by this study is above the median for the country at large in the proportion of children in school between ages of 18-20. Recent statistics from the Bureau of Census on press release for September 10, 1931, show 21.4 per cent of

persons between ages of 18-20 in school for the United States at large; the percentage for the mountain States is 28.2. The North Central Association¹³ reported that 43.8 per cent of the 1928 high-school graduates from schools with enrollments between 7-99 students entered college the following September following graduation in June; for high schools with enrollments of 100-199, the corresponding percentage was 37.9. For larger schools the percentage was not far different from this latter figure. This indicates that a larger percentage of the graduates of small than of large schools enters

TABLE VI

SHOWING THE AMOUNT OF COLLEGE EDUCATION
RECEIVED BY 564 HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

Years in College	Number	Per Cent
0	258	45.74
1	88	15.60
2	59	10.46
3	39	6.92
4	94	16.67
4 plus	26	4.61
TOTAL	564	100.00

college. The North Central report accounts for college entrance for one year only. An increase in the span of time would increase the percentages. Young¹⁴ reported that 42.3 per cent of 2,600 Indiana high-school graduates over a period of 30 years entered college. The span of time in this study includes a period when college attendance was not so prevalent as at present. The United States Office of Education¹⁵ reports that 35 per cent of the boys and 27 per cent of the girls who graduated from high school in 1927 entered college. In each of the above reports, less than 44 per cent entered college; in the present study slightly over 54 per cent of the graduates entered college.

Of all the men of this study, 69.42 per

¹³ North Central Association Quarterly, IV (March 1930), p. 575.

¹⁴ O. E. Young, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

¹⁵ Data cited from *School Review*, XXXVIII (June 1930), p. 406.

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cent did not earn a college degree; 24.02 per cent earned a bachelor's degree; 1.75 per cent, a master's degree; and 4.8 per cent, some other degree, principally medical and legal. Of the women, 85.07 per cent did not earn degrees; 14.03 per cent earned a bachelor's degree; 0.9 per cent, a master's degree; and none earned other degrees. In the aggregate, approximately one out of each four of the high-school graduates earned a degree. This figure may suggest the proportional emphasis which the small high school should place upon college-preparatory courses.

AVOCATIONAL INTERESTS

Comparatively few of the avocational interests of the graduates showed any relation to the training received in school. Reading was the one major exception and represented the most frequent leisure-time occupation for a majority of the graduates. Competitive athletics were seldom mentioned by the graduates as an avocational interest. This fact would seem to throw some doubt about the practice of giving so much emphasis to interscholastic competitive athletics in the small high school. Activities with a higher degree of carry-over interest into afterschool life might well be encouraged. Such activities as these represent interests most frequently mentioned by the graduates: golf, radio, fishing, theater, hunting, music, tennis, sports, dancing, bridge, sewing, fancy work, swimming, horseback riding, and hiking. Reducing the various particularized avocational interests of the graduates to group types, we find that 38.11 per cent preferred literary activities as a leisure-time pursuit; 29.83 per cent preferred outdoor sports; 13.53 per cent, indoor pastimes; 8.55 per cent, indoor activities; 5.13 per cent, music and art; 2.89 per cent, making or growing things; and 1.96 per cent miscellaneous activities.

Wyatt,¹⁶ on the basis of the amount of time per week spent on each particular activity, reported the following in this order as the leading leisure-time activities of adults in Fort Worth, Texas:

1. Auto riding for recreation
2. Reading for entertainment
3. Reading newspapers
4. Radio
5. Study
6. Walking for recreation
7. Auto riding for entertainment
8. Reading magazines
9. Fooling around and loafing
10. Picture shows
11. Reading books for improvement
12. Informational reading
13. Travel
14. Shopping
15. Church attendance
16. Bridge

Though Wyatt's basis of classification is entirely different from that of the present study, certain common elements are readily evident. Reading plays a predominant rôle in both studies. In both studies there is a noticeable lack of interests which might have been developed by the school, reading excepted. Wyatt's study was not confined to high-school graduates.

READING INTERESTS OF GRADUATES

Reading was mentioned as a favorite leisure-time activity more than four times as frequently as any other one interest. Just what part the school may have played in the creation and development of this particular interest is open to question. The type of reading reported most frequently by the graduates was distinctly at variance with the type to which the average high school gives most attention. Henderson¹⁷ suggests

¹⁶ O. D. Wyatt, *Analysis of Leisure-Time Activities of Adults in Fort Worth, Texas*. Unpublished master's thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, 1929.

¹⁷ Frank D. Henderson, "What Part Does the School Play in the Formation of the Reading Habits of its Pupils," *School Review*, XXXVIII (January 1930), pp. 51-54.

that the school really plays a small part in influencing the reading habits of high-school pupils. Perusal of the data of the present study leads one to the same conclusion.

Practically all of the graduates read periodicals of some type. Few of the graduates reported as favorites the most trashy magazines; on the other hand the better class of periodicals were mentioned as favorites infrequently, comparatively. The favorite periodicals of the men in order of frequency of mention were these: *American Magazine*, *Saturday Evening Post*, *Collier's*, *Literary Digest*, and *Cosmopolitan*. The favorites of the women were these in this order: *American Magazine*, *Good Housekeeping*, *Cosmopolitan*, *National Geographic*, and *McCall's*.

Approximately 73 per cent of the graduates reported books which they had read recently and enjoyed. Occasionally a graduate would state that he did not like to read books. The book reading, as was the periodical reading, was predominantly in the field of fiction. Less than 18 per cent of the favorite books mentioned were outside the fiction field. About 5 per cent preferred biography; slightly over 5 per cent, history or religion or philosophy; approximately 2 per cent, science; and the remaining 6 per cent was scattered over the fields of travel, professional books, sociology, and drama. Not once was the reading of books of poetry mentioned.

Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front* was an outstanding favorite of both men and women; it was mentioned almost three times as frequently as any other title. Aldrich's *A Lantern in Her Hand* ranked second as a favorite and was mentioned particularly by the women. Ferber's *Cimarron* ranked third; Bailey's *Wild Wind*, fourth; and LaFarge's *Laughing Boy*, fifth. *Ben Hur* was mentioned four times, and the *Bible*, three times. Wallace, Cellini, Doyle, and Dumas, mentioned in the aggregate

thirteen times out of a total possible 411, were the only authors mentioned who were not strictly representative of current literature. These authors in the order named reigned as favorites with the graduates: Remarque, Aldrich, Curwood, Ferber, and Kyne.

Though the emphasis of the average high school has been upon literature from the field of classics and in book form, these graduates with few exceptions favored current literature and read periodicals more frequently than books. It is impossible to present the data in detail; however it seems fair to conclude from the total amount of evidence at hand that the school should give more attention to the cultivation of the right habits in the selection and reading of current literature, particularly periodicals. There is no "carry-over" interest in classic literature to speak of. No amount of rationalizing and theorizing will alter this fact. A change of emphasis on the part of the high school might well raise the general reading standards of the graduates in the field of current literature.

AFFILIATIONS OF THE GRADUATES

Seventy-five per cent of the men and 84 per cent of the women were affiliated with some religious denomination. This proportion is decidedly above that for the population of the United States at large.

Approximately every other one of the graduates belonged to a lodge, or club, or some other community organization. The women were thus affiliated to a slightly higher degree than the men. In round numbers, one man out of each six for the aggregate number included in the study held some elective or appointive office, principally in churches, lodges, and clubs; the corresponding ratio for the women was one out of each five.

Ten of the 564 graduates held civil or governmental offices.

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THE GRADUATES' ESTIMATE OF THE
SCHOOL'S WORK

The graduates were requested in the question blank to indicate the most and least worth-while activities or subjects in which they participated while in high school from their present viewpoint. It is not to be assumed that these opinions are to be accepted as infallible; neither do they deserve to be ignored by educational administrators. On the whole, the traditional high-school subjects received a low rating by the graduates. Foreign language was declared by both men and women to have been least valuable; and this by decisive odds. The social studies, despite their assumed values on the part of educators, generally, received a relatively low rating. This latter fact contradicts the findings of Mort and Devricks.¹⁸

A detailed statement of the opinions of the graduates is impossible in this connection. In the final analysis the men ranked these subjects as of most value in this order: English, commercial work, mathematics, and agriculture. The rank assigned by the women was as follows in this order: English, commercial work, home economics, and normal training.

Some authorities have been inclined to assign relatively high values to the extracurricular activities of the high school. This tendency cannot be justified in the light of the opinions expressed by the graduates of

this study. The curricular values loomed large in their estimation and many of the extracurricular activities were ascribed but meager or little value. Among the extracurricular activities the men and women agreed that the following were valuable: debate, dramatics, publications, school offices, band, and orchestra. The women questioned the value of interscholastic competitive athletics; the men questioned the value of student participation in school government.

The judgments of the graduates in this study emphasize the need for objective evaluation of extracurricular activities. Among others, Rugg¹⁹ and Counts²⁰ have insisted upon this need. The assigned values are largely assumed and have not been verified. Objective evaluation would likely reveal relatively small value inherent in some of these activities. Those activities with relatively small value could then be eliminated and correspondingly more energy applied to the sponsorship of the more worth-while activities.

This study as a whole suggests the need for more complete information concerning the ultimate destination of the graduates of small high schools. Comparative information of this character from various regions of the United States would be invaluable in formulating a policy for the administration of the smaller high schools.

¹⁸ E. U. Rugg, "A Proposed Evaluation of Extra-Curricular Activities," *The High School Teacher*, III (January 1927), pp. 6-7.

²⁰ George S. Counts, "Procedures in Evaluating Extra-curriculum Activities," *School Review*, XXXIV (June 1926), pp. 412-421.

¹⁸ Paul R. Mort and R. K. Devricks, "An Accounting of General Values in the Small High-School Curriculum," *School Review*, XXIX (February 1921), pp. 119-134.

THE PRINCIPAL AND COMMUNITY NATURE ACTIVITIES

WILLIAM G. VINAL

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Vinal probably is the man best prepared in the country to produce a paper of the type here offered. He is professor of nature education at Western Reserve University.*
J. A. D.

I. A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ESSENTIAL FACTS

THERE is a large body of nature activities which has appeared in every community within the last generation and which can no longer be ignored in the education of every citizen. The pioneer child had no need of nature study; he had to trap for furs, gather herbs for medicine, and "do the chores." Conservation of soil, trees, or birds was unnecessary. European weeds and rats, the English sparrow and starling, the San José scale, the gypsy and brown-tailed moths, and a horde of other pests had not arrived. Folks were not rubbing elbows so closely that such knowledge as germs, sanitation, pure air, pure food, and clean communities were vital factors. Originally the summer was left free so that the boys could help with the crops. Through "urbanizing," it became a lost summer until the camp was originated. Scouting and the 4 H Clubs were organized, if not in a spirit of revolt, at least because the schools had not appreciated or supplied the needs for which they stand. Through years of trial and error parks and playgrounds have proved worth while. Hiking, nature clubs, and pets are here to stay. These nature activities prevail in every community. They permeate the school program as warp to woof. The whole fabric is spun by the community, of which the school is the educational headquarters. These activities must be nurtured, safeguarded, and coördinated. Many principals have already assumed the responsibility. It may not be amiss to think through the line of reasoning by which a principal arrives to the point where he decides to work out a program of nature activities for his community.

II. THE PHILOSOPHY WHICH CALLS FOR A SCHOOL-COMMUNITY PROGRAM

1. Definitions (that we may have an understanding)

Education is life, rather than a preparation for life.

The *school* is a work-play-study unit rather than a building.

The *community* is a nature-study classroom, with more resources than the school building.

The *principal* is the educational guide for the community.

2. The Child

We teach children instead of subjects.

The school exists for the welfare of the child.

The child is a vital part of the community.

Children, nature study, education itself, need no longer be housed to get the best results.

Children should be judged by their contribution to and coöperation in the community rather than by competition against others.

There are children who cannot succeed in a school building who can find a corner in the community in which they can succeed. Edison and a host of others succeeded in spite of the formalized curriculum.

Some one must be responsible for the education of boys and girls up to eighteen, whether they be in school or out.

The educational period is seven days a week, twelve months a year.

Machines have reduced the working period to six hours a day for five days a week. This means more leisure time. Many adults spend their leisure time in some form of nature recreation which they acquired in childhood.

Nature recreation is available to all.

The average Scout gets more nature activities and a richer experience in nature study than as a public-school pupil.

The summer camp which has the child for a twenty-four-hour day for eight weeks may have more influence over him than the school which simply has him for five hours a day for forty weeks.

Nature opportunities are fewer and fewer in the school room and more and more in the community.

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In the future there will be less of the unnaturalness and more of the natural.

3. The Community

The community has the child four times as long as the school.

The community educates the child.

The community provides a wider range of nature opportunities than does the school.

The community should provide equal nature opportunities for all.

The ideal community has beautiful home and school surroundings, consisting of lawns and flowers; adequate playgrounds and parks with trees and swimming pools; Scout troops with competent leaders and satisfactory meeting places; camps, nature clubs, museums, lecture courses, and exhibitions.

The family is the basic institution of the community. Many nature activities are most worth while in the home. Successful home activities need guidance. The vital curriculum meets these needs.

In our communities as a whole we spend more than three times as much for crime as for education. In communities where education costs more than crime, we find parks, playgrounds, home gardens, beautiful yards, Scout troops, and other nature opportunities.

Communities with a complete schedule of nature activities have eliminated idleness for both children and adults.

The nursery school is a community of nature interests for the first six years of life. Educationally it may be more important than the remaining years.

Within a generation most communities have substituted overcrowding, noise, smoke, apartment houses, factories, electric cars, speeding, brakes, movies, audiences, pavements, gasoline, and rapid transits for farms, fields, woods, ocean, hills, sunshine, clear streams, and fresh air. Our education must be so organized that we may bring back to the community those things which the community took away from us.

4. The Principal (practices of some principals that may be prophecies for all principals)

The principal is no longer teaching the three R's.

The principal has a full-time job.

The principal should recognize that work-leisure nature activities not only have educational possibilities but that they need supervision.

The principal who is an interested, intelligent, active supporter of desirable community nature activities does the most for the children of that community.

The principal should be able to analyze the

nature needs of a community for Scouting, playgrounds, recreation leaders, and whatnot, should have the initiative to promulgate the ideas, and should have the executive ability to set the ideas in action.

The principal who brings to his school the worth-while nature activities of other communities and of other schools is providing the opportunities which are advancing all communities.

III. A COMMUNITY NATURE PROGRAM MEETS THE SEVEN OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

1. *Health:* The gifts of nature—sunshine, fresh air, mountains, and sea—cannot be dissociated from health. Hiking, camping, gardening, and the care of pets mean positive rather than negative habits. The speed of tomorrow requires maintained physical, mental, and emotional recreation. Community nature activities provide all of these. The community way of thinking means the working together on such problems as mosquito control, the elm-leaf beetle, protecting the bobwhite, forest-fire laws, destroying poison ivy, pleasing landscapes, and clean milk. One of the H's in the 4 H club stands for health. In the Scout oath the Scout says that he will keep himself "physically strong." Summer camps maintain high health standards. Sickness means the disobedience of one of nature's laws.

2. *Home:* The home is the basic social unit of the community. The well-being of a community is built upon its foundation of homes. The family nature-study life is a basic element in the understanding of sex, health habits, and hygiene. The garden is at its best when it is a family enterprise, a garden of family fellowship, and the source of family enjoyment. The family picnic is one of the best family social functions. Children need guidance and individual counseling in such things as are outgrowths of such home-nature activities as caring for pets and gardens. Biology begins at home. Home planting and landscaping, feeding the birds, preventing flies, the warfare against rats, preventing molds and mildews, keeping a hive of bees, and hundreds of other nature

activities concern the home. The school can stimulate and guide the home.

3. *Learning:* The number of facts is not so important as the knowing how to get the facts. The important thing is how we go about finding out the desirable facts that are needed in our daily life: How can the library help us in our daily needs? What is causing my peaches to be wormy? How can I get more of this kind of geranium? Is this a fake medicine? Where is the State Experiment Station? Who is the community authority on the white pine blister rust? Is there a local Audubon Club?

4. *Citizenship:* Scouting, hiking, and camping usually are done in groups. Such organization usually means teamwork, which in turn means citizenship. Neighborhood garden and bird clubs give rise to neighborhood consciousness, neighborhood pride, neighborhood beautification, parks and playgrounds. The citizen of today who enjoys the open spaces, the shaded highways, landscaped grounds, and areas for hiking will be the citizen of tomorrow who will carry the responsibility of trusteeship and loyalty.

5. *Vocation:* Many vocations are open to the youth whose hobby is nature study. He or she may become an artist, an astronomer, a bee keeper, a camp director, a conservationist, a dairyman, a farmer, a forester, a fruit culturist, an entomologist, a nature writer, a nature photographer, a scout naturalist, a ranger-naturalist, a taxidermist, a weatherman, a government biologist, a landscape engineer, a tree surgeon, an ornithologist, a geologist, a nature teacher, or some other "ist" or "er" in the great army of naturalists.

6. *Avocation:* The monotony of the machine age must be compensated for by leisure-time activities that take one into the open, and challenge the intellect. One person will grow dahlias, his neighbor will make a rock garden, another breed trout, another sketch vistas, and another collect

mushrooms. Many will hit the trail. Whatever the form of nature recreation, it can endure into later life.

7. *Character:* There was a time when man thought that character was seated in the liver or the heart. He spoke of one's gall or heart-felt sympathy. Then it was taught by a series of word formulas—thou shalt not steal or thou shalt be good. Today educators believe that character education calls for interesting opportunities to act and react. The activity must be so interesting that the participant will accept the annoyance of sharing, or coöperating, in order to take part. Scouting, camping, and allied activities provide living situations and not sitting-at-the-desk situations. What will the individual do when swimming, building a fire, tramping in the vicinity of a private orchard, carrying an axe, when on a camping trip, or when sailing a boat, each of which calls for self-direction? It is practice, not theory; attitude, not knowledge, that counts in such situations. Provide an organized outdoor program with good leadership, and there will be a continuity of situations which call for self-control, purposive striving, recognition of the dignity of work, orderliness in everyday life, care of clothes, proper toothbrush habits, teamwork, and leadership.

IV. LEADERSHIP FOR A COMMUNITY NATURE PROGRAM

We may think of communities as rural, industrial, residential, and foreign. The program and consequent leadership for any of these communities must vary considerably. The principal initiates and coördinates the plan not only as a school official but as a citizen of the community. With the help of the parent-teachers' association, the principal can use his influence in obtaining approved voluntary leaders for the Scout troops, the playgrounds, and the clubs. Visiting teachers and special teachers from the platoon school have a place here.

In this connection it is the duty of col-

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leges of education to train leaders for field service. The nature classroom of the future will not have such frozen assets as formaldehyde, dissecting pans, fixed seats, textbooks, routine, and grades. It will not be so much concerned with subject matter as it will be the headquarters for desirable experiences. The courses will not be so much a chain of sequential subjects as a reconstruction of the same desirable attitudes, habits, and skills under new experiences. In each nature or biology course the principles and goals will remain the same but the power and interests will have wider opportunities for growth. Activities for afternoons and evenings, for summer and winter, will appear on the program. The student-teacher will find joy in accomplishment. He will sign up for tasks more difficult than are suggested in the most formal laboratory manual. He will master the tools of leadership because he realizes that he must do so in order to become successful in his chosen profession. He will discover a keen fascination in leading in the playground, the garden, or the club. He will seek rich experiences rather than lectures about experiences. He will not be content with hearing that teaching is a profession or that the child is a growing animal with certain inborn traits. He will demand a laboratory opportunity to deal with child interests.

The introductory course in biology for teachers will be less and less an imitation of the premedic or liberal-arts course. For those who have an interest, there will be a tendency towards majors and minors. The period of preparation will be longer. It will be intensive rather than extensive. With a change from the traditional to the vitalized, the objectives will be broader and the atmosphere freer. Units of preparation will be based on desires rather than on artificial rewards. There will be more of self-realization and getting out into the community. Records will be kept to show what the student-teacher does in the community. Atten-

tion will be given to individual tastes, aptitudes, and desires. The activities will include more of health, moral responsibility, play, democratic spirit, citizenship, and life.

With the foregoing in mind, the Cleveland School of Education affiliated with Western Reserve University is making a serious attempt to train leaders for community nature activities. It is believed that if a student-teacher can go out and organize a nature club of boys or girls and keep it going on the basis of interest and voluntary attendance, and meet the seven objectives of education, he will be a successful and better teacher. This semester there are thirty-eight animal clubs at schools, social-settlement houses, branch libraries, and churches. It has become customary for many of the centers to ask for nature leaders.

In the summer the University maintains a Nature Guide School where not only teachers, and principals but parents, Scout leaders, religious workers, and others assemble to get experience in outdoor leadership. The outdoors is the classroom and the textbook. For practice work there is a resident group of thirty-two girl naturalists, a village group of thirty boys and girls who are interested enough to pay tuition to attend a nature school, and neighboring camps who seek nature guidance. The camps include a Scout camp, a camp for crippled children, a camp for diabetics, a camp for the blind, and various types of social-service camps.

The Nature Guide School has graduated but two classes totaling fourteen leaders. The majority of the graduates are teachers who are doing special school work in nature study. Aside from that, they are making many points of contact with their respective communities. The majority go to summer camps as nature counselors. In addition to this, one graduate organized two community nature groups after the fashion of the village group at the Nature Guide School. Another leader launched nature activities on the ten playgrounds of a residential district, having

an assistant nature leader for each playground. Several of the leaders act as Scout-naturalists. One of the parent-students is a Girl Scout leader for the Doan School, which is the Cleveland curriculum center for elementary science.

V. EXISTING PRACTICES IN COMMUNITY NATURE ACTIVITIES

It is not the purpose of this paper to give an exhaustive summary of the instances where the principal has community nature activities well under way or where the activities are knocking at the door. So far as we know there has never been a survey of such practices and had there been we would not have space in this article for such a report. We venture to make the statement that every school, if it does not foster such activities, at least has them in its community. We are not talking about fads but about organizations that have been with us for years, that have proved their worth, and that are here to stay.

1. *Boy Scouts*: The Board of Education of New York City has appropriated \$10,000 for Boy Scout work. Many schools in other cities sponsor Scout troops. The public school is a permanent nonsectarian home and is best equipped for a Scout headquarters. It makes contact with all children. Many colleges offer credit courses in Scouting. Nearly fifty per cent of college men have been Boy Scouts. A similar statement might be made for Girl Scouts and for Camp Fire Girls.

2. *Municipal Camps*: Perhaps California cities provide the best examples of municipal camps where citizens only are admitted on a cost basis.

3. *Gardening*: All large cities have their school garden departments. In times of war or financial depression the school garden flourishes. The home garden is now recognized as of more value than the school garden but the latter still has a place for "landless" children.

4. *Social-Settlement Camps*: Cleveland has the largest community fund in the world. This year it will amount to more than seven million dollars. Among other projects it supports many social-settlement camps. Each camp has a nature leader. Each year the School of Applied Social Sciences of Western Reserve University holds a camp institute wherein the camp leaders are trained in out-

door leadership. Pittsburgh held its first institute for camp leaders in the spring of 1931.

5. *4 H Clubs*: 4 H Clubs are backed by the United States Government for rural communities. The children not only have their pig clubs, corn clubs, etc., but in many instances have their camps under trained leadership.

6. *Library Clubs*: The Cleveland Public Library has a director of clubs. The various branch libraries guide the children to the best sources of reading. Many nature clubs are under the leadership of student-teachers. From the point of view of the library this provides a means of self-education along the lines of one's interest.

7. *Community Centers*: The Anthony Wayne Community Centre of Cleveland for some years has had nature clubs which meet in voting booths. Before this, the buildings were unused most of the year, were an eyesore to the community, and were a liability, as the boys used to break the windows and disfigure the walls. Now the boys protect the voting booths and take pride in having them attractive.

8. *School Camps*: A far-reaching experiment has been started by the Shaker Heights High School in conjunction with the Hiram House Social Settlement. The latter has acquired a large tract of land which it is developing as a camp. It is the idea of George Bellamy, the director of Hiram House, to establish a Progress City in the woods, where the children will have their own government much after the fashion of a typical New England town. The site is being developed by the settlement-house children and by the high-school pupils from the residential district. It is the aim of the parents of the latter to provide an interesting, worth-while activity that compensates for the high-school fraternity and dances. It is an experiment in sex character education that promises to be a significant contribution.

The high-school boys are making trails, building bridges, restoring a farmhouse, making fireplaces, etc., and receive credit in manual training and biology. The girls have made curtains, taken part in decorating the house, and cooked meals. They have received credit in sewing, domestic science, and biology. After a "day's work" they assemble for camp fires and social times. This is happening in a high school that has to be conscientious about college entrance requirements. In the summer, engineering students from the Case School of Applied Science camped on the grounds, took aeroplane pictures, made a topographic map, and surveyed for water supply. This is a community enterprise that reaches from the grades through college to parenthood; from the slums

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to the de luxe. The intricate network of committees simulates the board of management of a large corporation.

9. *A Day's Outing*: In Germany a day's outing is held once or twice a month, under teacher guidance. In the region of the Black Forest the children are often taken into the forest for a week.

10. *The Museum of Natural History*: In Cleveland there are two resident teachers who are stationed at the museum and paid by the Board of Education. Principals schedule classes who go to the museum for instruction. In addition there are two itinerant teachers who are employed through coöperation of the school departments of suburbs and the museum. These teachers go from school to school and are also establishing branch museums on a plan similar to the branch library. Chicago, Buffalo, Providence, and New York are doing notable work in this same way.

11. *The Educational Museum*: In Cleveland the growth in demand for visual material has caused the Educational Museum to move to larger quarters twice in four years. The principal's office is the clearing house for ordering lantern slides, mounted specimens, pictures, and animal cages. The five hundred lantern slides delivered daily are a thermometer of the amount of work carried on by the institution.

12. *The Nature Trail*: Public-school children in Johnstown, Pennsylvania, have just completed a nature trail in a new park recently presented to the city. On the opening date the children acted as guides and more than two hundred visitors from the community signed the guest book.

13. *The Trailside Museum*: So far as we know, Cleveland has the distinction of having the first community trailside museum. This was set in operation in the summer of 1931. It is a building set up in a metropolitan park. It is made of native materials and the fireplace exhibits the layers of rock formations found in the locality. Within the building are living animals in cages and various nature materials of the community. In front

of the building there is a fire circle where the resident naturalist gives talks.

14. *Community Nature Guide*: In August 1930, Akron, Ohio, tried the experiment of having a resident nature guide in one of its metropolitan parks. The naturalist was a teacher of biology from a junior high school and was on the same salary basis except that he was paid by the park board. Each morning a bus load of children—Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Boy Scouts, or other groups—arrived for a twenty-four-hour stay. They were taken on nature walks, taught how to cook outdoors, and instructed in the art of camping in general.

VI. A FEW IDEAS TO BE CONSIDERED BY THE PRINCIPAL IN LAUNCHING A PROGRAM

It will be evident that some of these suggestions are the result of the values and dangers that have come from the experience of interscholastic athletics.

1. It is necessary for the leader (coach) to be a teacher first and an expert second.
2. The participation of every pupil is more important than that of the specialist.
3. Intramural is more profitable than intercommunity.
4. The principle of getting along together is more important than winning contests.
5. Activities for fun are more important than activities for making professionals.
6. Activities that tend to promote habits and attitudes of health throughout life are more worth while than activities that only serve to benefit health while in school.
7. There should be elective opportunities for each pupil to satisfy his interests and talents.
8. The activity should be something wanted by the pupil.
9. An interested teacher should be the sponsor and guide.
10. The activity should lead to desirable outcomes.

SCHOOL NEWS

S. O. ROEM

From California

The Orland Joint Union High School, under the leadership of its principal, is revising with teacher participation the school curriculum to meet more adequately the varied needs, interests, and capacities of its pupils. The teachers and pupils are developing effective learning units in accordance with the Morrison principles.

The statewide guidance program of the San Diego public schools is becoming more effective through the activities of a coördination council under the leadership of the city superintendent of schools. The activities of this council are resulting in a unified guidance program in which every teacher feels that he has a part.

The Long Beach public schools have had in effect for several years a supervising program which the teachers heartily endorse. It is based upon the major premise that supervision is a coöperative enterprise directed to the stimulation of the teacher to the end that he may improve his work through self-impelled activity resulting in genuine professional growth and personal satisfaction. The technique of this supervising program has been developed by Dr. William J. Klopp.

From Florida

The junior high schools of Tampa have substituted soccer football for interscholastic American football. The time that one man formerly spent in coaching the interscholastic football team has been devoted to developing twenty-two soccer teams for group competition.

The Winter Park Junior High School has developed a plan for administering and financing the lunchroom, which has made it possible to furnish well-balanced meals for only a few cents per person.

The Kirby-Smith Junior High School has developed an interesting pupil-activities program. It is doing some outstanding work in student government.

From Kansas

The Hutchinson Junior High School has developed a splendid thrift program. Practically all the students and faculty members participate in this and other activities.

The secondary schools at Winfield emphasize in a splendid way homeroom programs that provide for pupil responsibility and pupil developments. The Cardinal Principles in education are highly emphasized.

The Chanute secondary schools are doing much in the development of trade interests. The Cardinal Principles in education are highly emphasized.

The music work, both instrumental and vocal, has been developed to a high degree in the Ottawa school system.

The Lawrence secondary schools have provided unusually fine facilities in their libraries.

The Topeka secondary schools are emphasizing in a splendid way the Cardinal Principles in education, as well as providing many student organizations. The homeroom program, too, is proving to be very interesting and worth while.

From Maine

The six-year school at Fairfield shows unusual economy in its use of a modified platoon system, offering special courses in commercial work, physical education, home economics, industrial training. It has an excellent library and a well-extended extracurricular program. The per pupil cost in this secondary school does not exceed \$65 annually.

Teachers at Lewiston, in a recent meeting, have voted to take a thirty per cent salary cut to save seventeen teachers in special courses who were to be ousted in an economy drive.

The Brunswick High School is emphasizing the development of pupil interest by means of its activities period. A unique program has been arranged for the administration of this work.

The town of Cape Elizabeth is taking advantage of the present low construction costs and is building a new high school to be organized on the unified six-year plan.

Coney High School, Augusta, supports all its extracurricular activities by means of a fair which offers participation by all pupils in dramatics, musical, and business activities.

OTHERS SAY

FLOYD E. HARSHMAN

LET US TEACH PUPILS, NOT SUBJECTS

In the September 1932 issue of the *American School Board Journal*, E. L. Austin of Michigan State College mentions six ways in which pupils, rather than subjects, may be taught. Some of them may cause us to reorganize our thinking regarding the purpose for which schools exist.

"1. Organize materials and methods on the basis of the whole child—his soul, his intellect, his emotions, his physical make-up, his ideals, and his experiences.

"2. Organize materials and plan techniques on the basis of psychological analysis rather than logical analysis if there be any conflict between these two types of organization.

"3. Adjust the difficulty of materials to the level of the learner. If the materials are organized anywhere near the level of the ability and training of the child, they will be difficult for him at times.

"4. The teacher owes it to the child to teach him how to study—not how to study in general, but how to study the particular materials at hand, depending upon the goal set for that particular class.

"5. Use personal factors to make learning as objective as possible. The scientific movement in education has made and is continuing to make tremendous contributions to methods and materials.

"6. Keep in mind constantly that the learner is the center of all teaching activity. It is he for whom the whole plan of education exists."

NEW SOURCES OF SCHOOL SUPPORT

Since one of our most pressing tasks at present is to make available funds reach out to ensure a full year of school, a series of forthcoming articles may prove most interesting. The *American School Board Journal* will present a series of articles by Dr. H. H. Davis on "New Sources of School Revenue and Tax Reduction for Real Property." In the first article, Dr. Davis presents three ways for using moneys derived from special State taxes, in particular the inheritance tax. CLEARING HOUSE readers will be interested.

MUSIC APPRECIATION

The broadcasts of the National Broadcasting Company music series, conducted by Walter Damrosch, will begin on October 14 at 11.00 A.M. (Eastern Standard Time).

"Four distinct series of concerts will be offered, graded to constitute a four-year course in apprecia-

tion of music." "They are designed to be helpful to the teachers in our schools."

Teachers who are interested may secure a copy of the program with lesson helps from their nearest National Broadcasting Company station.

Nott Terrace High School, Schenectady, N.Y. has developed a course in speed writing to help pupils in better and more complete note taking.

Ithaca, N.Y. has recently developed splendid course outlines in social studies, general mathematics, physical education and health, industrial arts, art, elementary business, guidance, general language, and general methods for teaching for use in the new David Boynton Junior High School.

Binghamton, N.Y., emphasizes the importance of teaching pupils how to study by the use of supervised study time in each classroom, and a minimum amount of home-study assignments in the earlier years of its secondary schools.

Commencement programs in Dover and Lewes, Delaware, were planned with the definite purpose of interpreting to the parents the work done in school. They were carried out by the graduates without the addition of any outside speakers.

In the Smyrna, Delaware, six-year secondary school every pupil, not physically disqualified, participates in an active health and physical-education program, culminating in a spring festival in which every one appears in some number on the program, with only parents and friends on the side lines.

In the Seaford, Delaware, school a plan is working by which just before lunch each pupil washes his hands under the inspection of student monitors.

In the Claymont, Delaware, secondary school the pupils in the manual- and fine-arts departments have built several important additions to the school equipment. Notable among these is a stage for marionettes, complete in size and fully equipped.

The city of Providence, Rhode Island, which has completed eight junior-high-school buildings as part of a plan for reorganizing secondary education, opened the buildings in the evening for public visitation during one week in June.

BOOK NOTES

MILDRED BATCHELDER

There seems to be no reason for the book agent. He comes in the fall, before Christmas, in the spring, and in all the intervening months. He has an enthralling story of the estimable qualities of some set without which any home or school would be unable to function effectively. Often he is so persistent and so exhausting that it is difficult to withstand him. There are some few intelligent people who feel it is not entirely satisfactory to buy something on the lonely recommendation of the salesman, superlative and commendatory though he may be. An adequate examination of a subscription work, as these books are called which cannot be purchased through the book stores, is a difficult task. It requires accessibility to other similar works for comparison and it is not satisfactorily done until information is verified for accuracy and reliability. An individual person, even an individual school or library, cannot make a complete examination, because many reference sets sold by agents are very useful while others are of no value. A guide to their purchase is indispensable.

Since January 1930 a committee of the American Library Association has been reviewing these sets and reference works and have published their decisions in a most interesting and useful quarterly called *Subscription Books Bulletin*. There are reviews of many sorts of subscription books, reviews which give prominence to the fine qualities of good sets and call attention to inaccuracies and out-of-date material in those which are not worth buying.

There have been a few publishers who have indulged in the very questionable practice of selling the same set under two different names. Sometimes new revisions are advertised when the content of the articles has been only slightly changed. In some the illustrations do not really supplement the

text material or may not be as well reproduced as the agent's sample indicates. Comments on all such matters are given in these reviews. The *Bulletin* is for a school official or other prospective purchaser what a research department is to an industrial organization. It is a modest publication with no brilliant orange cover or elaborate illustrations, but a reading of its intelligent and discriminating information may cause the avoidance of much wasted money.

The following books are selected from *The Booklist*, a monthly publication of the American Library Association.

Adventures of a Novelist, by Gertrude Franklin Atherton. New York: Horace Liveright, 1932. 598 pages. Illustrated. \$4.00.

Born seventy years ago in the California, still close to pioneer days, that furnished the locale for her early novels, Mrs. Atherton began her career in an environment that gave little incentive or encouragement to a woman writer. Her early life is told in detail and the whole book is an unusually frank revelation of the personality of a woman who never had a doubt of herself and went relentlessly towards her chosen goal in spite of disapproval of family and society and the harshness of literary critics. The anecdotes of literary people that enliven the narrative are caustic and unsparing.

The Frozen Fountain; being essays on architecture and the art of design in space, by Claude Fayette Bragdon. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1932. 125 pages. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A series of essays in which the author epitomizes his opinions and theories on aesthetics, architecture, form, design, and color. The central idea is that life is a fountain—a struggle upward—and that architecture in its essence is a symbolization of that struggle. The illustrations are provocative and illuminating.

BOOK NOTES

Uninvited Guests; a short account of the animals living on or in us; with forty-four illustrations after drawings by the author by David Causey. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1932. 120 pages. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A humorous but at the same time serious account of the animal parasites of man, telling the habits and appearances of many kinds from those causing trichoma and diarrhea, to tapeworm, ticks, fleas, and mosquitoes. The author, a professor at the University of Arkansas, tells how we acquire these pests and how to avoid or remove them. Illustrated with small sketches by the author.

The Pony Express; the record of a romantic adventure in business; illustrated with contemporary prints and photographs, by Arthur Chapman. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1932. 319 pages. Illustrated. \$3.50.

During the two years of its existence, the overland pony express carried mail, dispatches, and news of the world, from Missouri, where the telegraph ended, to California. This history relates the exploits of its hard-riding couriers who made record-breaking time over dangerous routes, until, with the establishment of stage routes and the completion of the transcontinental telegraph, the pony express was abandoned.

Thunder and Dawn; the outlook for Western civilization with special reference to the United States, by Glenn Frank. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. 404 pages. \$3.50.

The president of the University of Wisconsin in this incisively written book, full of thought-provoking observations of the social order, sounds a note of hope in his scientific humanism. "Briefly, his theme is that we need a new renaissance, a new reformation and new industrial revolution—each of which he defines in a forceful and buoyant thumbnail sketch set against the repudiated and bankrupt utilitarianism of the post-war decade. He treats of education, art, religion, industry. And the book has the popular attraction of breathing without shame a spirit of middle-western, liberal, democratic, upstanding progressive faith in the possibilities of the optimistic bias."—*New York Herald Tribune Books*.

MUSIC

of Many Lands and Peoples

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A gay and lively book this,—filled with music that will please the pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The organization of its art songs and folk songs into fourteen significant units of work insures constructive growth in every phase of vocal and appreciative expression and definitely correlates with the social program. Especial care has been taken in the material for the changing voice and in the voice combinations.

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This series unfailingly enlists the support of junior high school boys and girls in attaining the goal of crisp, accurate speech and clear, grammatical writing through orderly thinking. Its high standards of attainment are justified by a tested organization of materials and procedures.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Music of Many Lands and People, by Osbourne McConathy, John W. Beattie, and Russell V. Morgan. New York: Silver Burdett and Company, 1932. Price \$1.52.

Junior-high-school music has broadened its scope and deepened its significance very greatly during the last decade and a half. Music recitation and drill classes have given way to joyful adventures in singing, in appreciation, in volunteer choruses, orchestras, and bands. Teachers and pupils have joined together in common participation in musical projects.

Material whereby young people may adventure in the varied fields of musical experience has not been readily available. The very attractive general utility book has been prepared for junior-high-school music classes by three outstanding leaders in the field of public-school music. It consists of fourteen units, as follows:

Unit One: The Pageant of Many Lands and Peoples

Unit Two: Qualities of the Human Voice—Soprano, Alto, Alto-tenor, Bass

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Unit Six: A Pageant of Early American History—Colonial Days, Frontier Days, the Sunny South

Unit Seven: Form, the Architecture of Music

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Unit Nine: Songs of Fun and Humor

Unit Ten: Songs for Boys' Chorus

Unit Eleven: Songs for the Christmas Season

Unit Twelve: A Pageant of Americanization

Unit Thirteen: Choruses for Additional Programs

Unit Fourteen: Our Homeland

As an introduction to many units, there are paragraphs which reveal to the student vital and interesting backgrounds—historical, literary, and analytical. This program is also enhanced and enriched by organized "listening" experiences to be gained through correlated recorded music.

P.W.L.C.

The Story of Uncle Sam's Money, by WALTER O. WOODS, New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1932, 177 pages, \$1.50.

This book tells the story of the United States Department of the Treasury and is written by

the Treasurer of the United States. The story is set forth in a most interesting and easily understood form. The excellent illustrations add much to the appeal of the book. There is a brief history of the Treasury. The manner in which money of all kinds is put into circulation, safeguards that are used, and devices developed to protect us are explained. The Federal Reserve System receives thorough consideration. Here again, when the author approaches a most technical subject, he shows his complete knowledge in his ease of explanation. Financing the nation and the various other jobs of the Treasury department also are chapters in the book. The book should find a place in even the smallest high-school or community library.

HERBERT A. TONNE

American High Schools and Vocational Schools in 1960, by DAVID SNEDDEN, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, vi+122 pages, \$1.50.

In his book *American Secondary Schools in 1960*, Dr. Snedden attempts, as the title indicates, to predict the likeness of our American secondary schools thirty years hence. The presentation takes the form of a report imagined to have been made by a Commission of Chinese educators who have spent several months in the United States studying the American system of secondary education. Following are some of the interesting situations and arrangements which they discover.

Organization

Very few Americans send their children to school under nine years of age; but all children from the tenth to the eighteenth birthday must attend a full-time school of general (i.e., nonvocational) education for forty-eight of the fifty-two weeks in the year, and from eight to ten hours each of six days per week. The school year is divided into four quarters of twelve weeks each. It has been found that all pupils can succeed in secondary-school general studies—provided such studies are adapted to the varying capacities of the learners. The distinction between junior and senior high schools has disappeared. The high schools are exclusively for general education. Vocational, and almost all prevocational, studies have disappeared, vocational work having been stepped up to the junior-college-grade level and beyond.¹

The high schools include, however, *appreciational* courses in industrial arts, commerce, and agricul-

¹ See final paragraphs of this review under the heading *Vocational Education*.

ture, not for any expected functionings in vocational training, but solely for the enhanced culture to be derived from such experiences.

Curriculum Construction

Curriculum construction is guided by four "key principles" as follows:

1. Distinguish sharply between proximate and deferred functioning values.
2. Distinguish sharply between performance power and appreciational objectives.
3. Distinguish sharply between needed uniformities and enriching diversities.
4. Systematically relate school requirements to pupils' achievements.

All the offerings of the school are assembled under three major categories: (1) physical-welfare courses, (2) cultural courses, and (3) socializing courses.

The subjects: The thought materials of instruction are still presented under subject heads; but "logical" organization has been abandoned, and "psychological" organization has given way to "functional." Furthermore, the older and all-inclusive presentations such as "Latin," and "English," and "history" have been largely replaced by a multitude of "short-unit" courses.

Principles of method: It is now conceded that there are no principles of general method, but only special methods applicable to each particular set of learning objectives. Considerable progress has been made in developing special methods of teaching appreciations.

Vocational Education: As previously noted, vocational education has been made entirely post-secondary.

Evening, apprentice, continuation, and other extension or part-time offerings of vocational education, which were favored by educators prior to 1930, have given way to all-day vocational schools.

All persons must be certified as having completed some type of vocational training before engaging in remunerative work in the vocation based on that training. All vocations or stages thereof fall into three categories: (1) junior; (2) operative, and (3) mastership.

H. E. WARNER

Orientation in Education, edited by T. H. SCHUTTE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 521 pages and index, \$2.50.

The editor states in the preface the following purposes for which the book may serve: "It

should serve as a basic text for introductory courses to the field of education as a whole. The individual chapters, through their uses in the library, should constitute valuable introductions to the more specialized courses. For those students who are interested in the study of education for its cultural values rather than professional training, it should serve as a comprehensive survey. It may be used to great advantage as a textbook in normal schools and possibly in teacher-training work in high schools, as well as in colleges and universities. And, lastly, it should be an interesting and illuminating volume in the hands of the general reader who is anxious to inform himself concerning this rapidly growing field of learning which deals with what may well be considered society's largest undertaking—the education of the human mind."

The volume appears to measure up to these purposes. It has all the merits and all the shortcomings of a symposium. The twenty-four chapters treat of the history of American education, educational philosophy, statistics, educational psychology, testing, principles of elementary education, of secondary education, and of higher education, administration and supervision, guidance, vocational education, finance, research, and so on. Most of the contributors are nationally recognized authorities in their special fields. Necessarily, some chapters are better than others in the success with which they present the essence of the educational functions treated. If the book is used as a springboard for beginners, it should serve very well. The student may get from it a concept of education as a whole which his later study will expand.

J. C. DUFF

The Teacher's Many Parts, by SIR JOHN ADAMS. Los Angeles: Ivan Deach Jr., 1932, 351 pages and index.

Sir John Adams has been known in America for thirty-five years, for his first book, dealing with the Herbartian psychology, was published that long ago. It was followed by a dozen others of interest to educators, and this latest one is a calm, informal, conversational kind of book in which the author puts down some of his mellow observations drawn from a career of brilliant service in the English schools and universities. The author calls particular attention to the fact that there are no footnotes in the volume.

Sir John does not dissect the teacher to lecture on his "parts." It is not so much taking him

BOOK REVIEWS

apart as seeing him whole from various points of view and in his various relationships. The discussion is interesting and the more refreshing because of the un-American background of the author. He puts on the educational processes different emphases from those we are accustomed to use. In fact, it may be assumed that between the lines the reader may find a philosophy of education revealed which is representative of that held by English schoolmasters today. Because of the considerable difference between the American tradition and the English, the book, therefore, will be of less value as a guide to prospective teachers here than over there. But teachers of some experience will enjoy the genial humor and sagacity that characterize the volume. The many people who heard Sir John lecture at Harvard and the University of California on his recent visit to America will value this printed record of his talks.

J. C. DUFF

The Way Out of the Educational Confusion (The Inglis Lecture, 1931), by JOHN DEWEY. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1931, vii + 41 pages, \$1.00.

"Can a culture which is divorced from the main directions and interests of modern life survive? Or, as far as it does survive, will it be, in its divorce, solid or attenuated, robust or feeble, a luxury for the few or a vital constituent of the life of the many?" Herein Dewey finds the confusion.

His "way out" will not satisfy all who agree with him regarding the nature of the confusion. He presents as alternative paths: (1) the project-problem method, provided that the projects are of long span and substantial; and (2) the interrelation of subject fields, provided that they lead to continuing interests rather than completeness. Schools of education will do little to reduce the existing confusion if they merely move in the direction of refining existing practices, striving to bring them under the protecting shield of "scientific method." "That course is more likely to increase confusion."

The reviewer is grateful for Dr. Dewey's analysis and recommendation, but it seems to him regrettable that the prophet does not recognize in this address the emerging importance of school life as the new curriculum. It was Dewey who asserted that except as the school is itself a typical embryonic community its training must be partly formal and partly pathological. The school that can lead us out of our educational confusion is

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P.W.L.C.

New Business English, by GEORGE BURTON HOTCHKISS and CELIA A. DREW. New York: American Book Company, 1932, 400 pages, \$1.16.

In this modernization of the authors' former text more than half has been rewritten and much new material has been added. A large number of drill exercises have been provided and all the illustrative matter and letters have been brought up-to-date in every respect. These are nearly all taken from the work of actual business houses. The appendix includes legal points in correspondence, commercial characters, abbreviations, signs and contracts, a glossary of business terms, etc.

As in the original edition, there is the treatment of important elements of good English, a presentation of business forms and usages, and a discussion of business correspondence. We are certain that the many teachers who have been using this text for the last sixteen years will welcome this new edition. HERBERT A. TONNE



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